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STORIES

FROM

THE HISTORY OF ROME.

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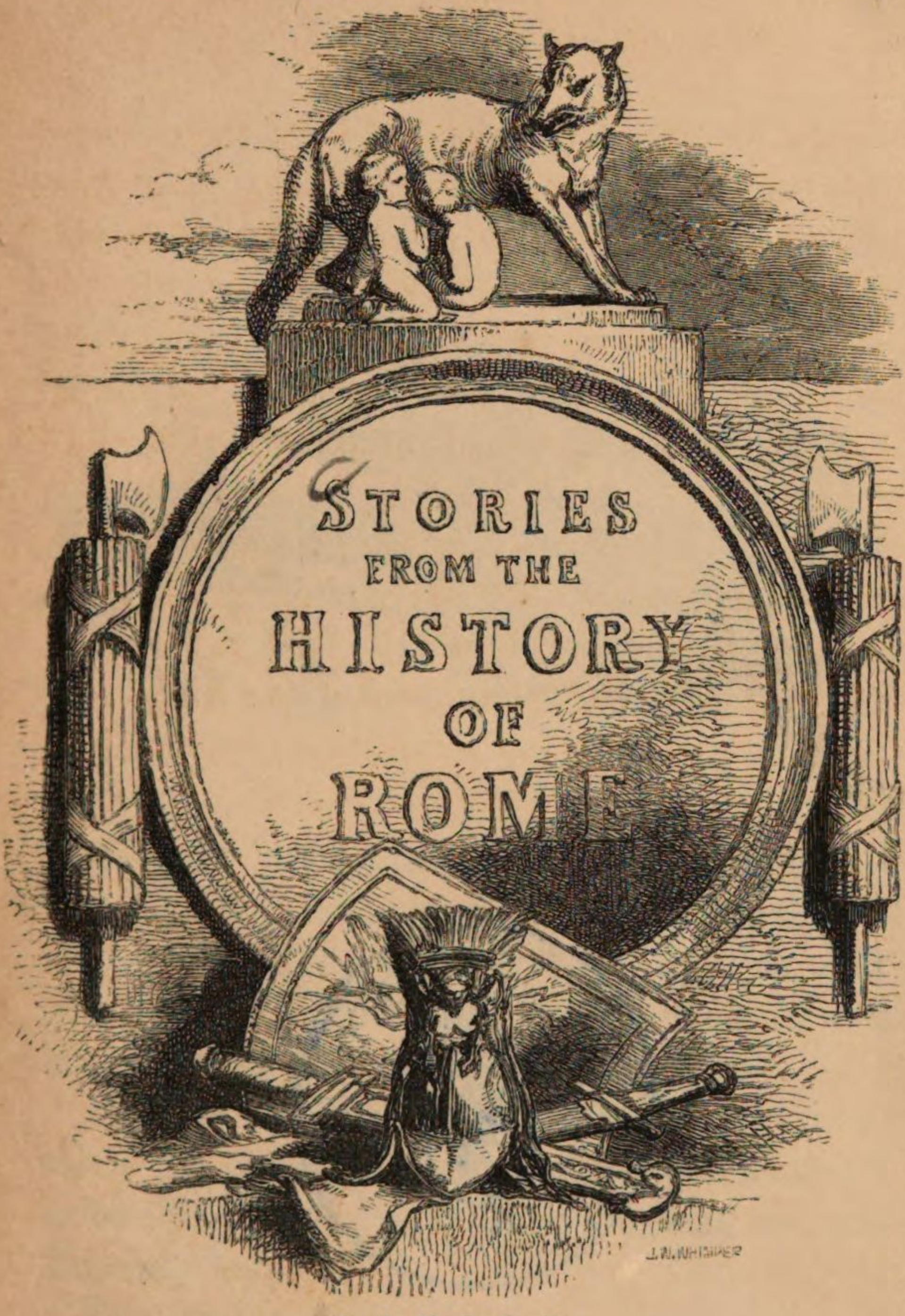

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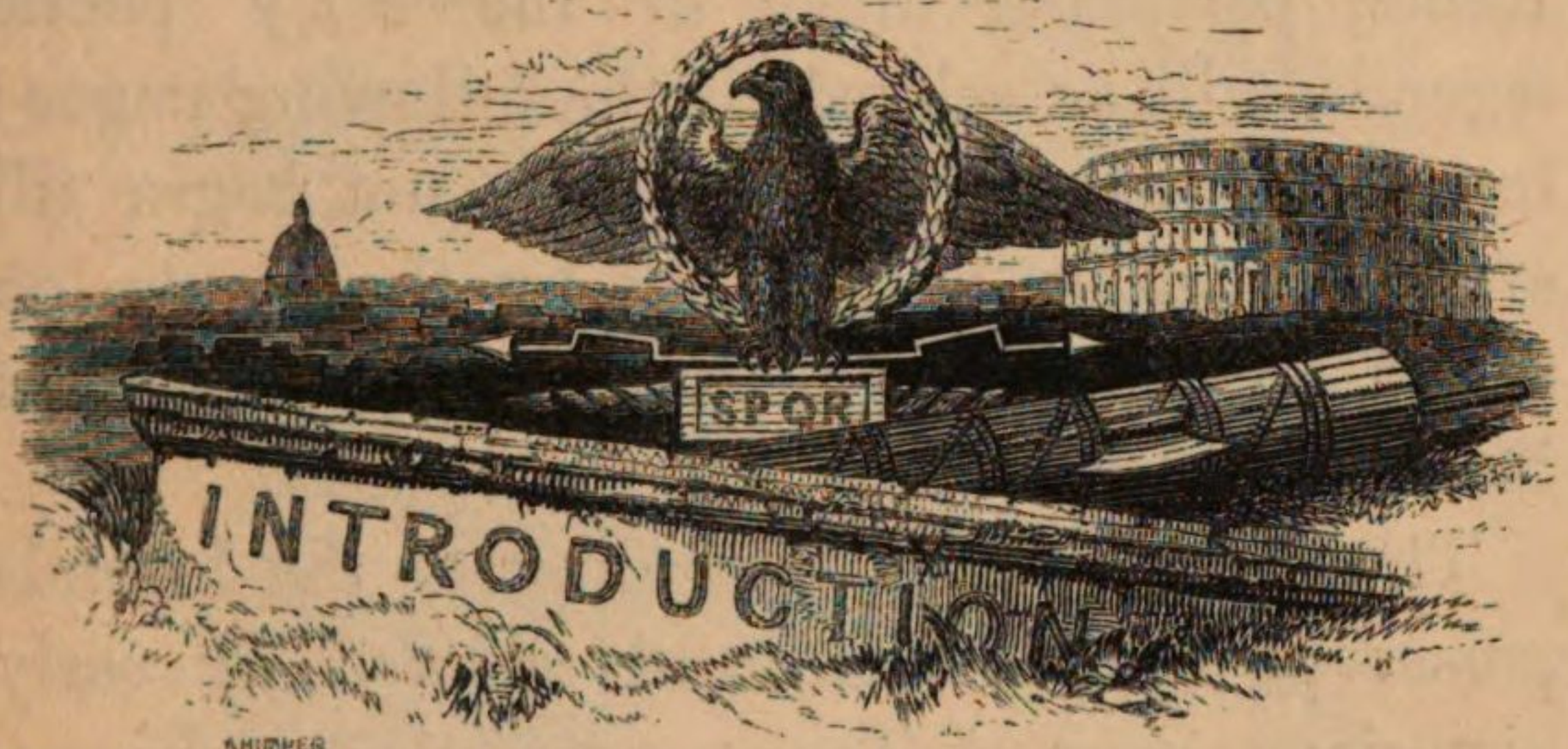


KHIMMER

THE early history of ancient nations is generally obscure; and the traditions that are preserved concerning it being mixed up with tales of wonder and superstition, it is difficult, if not impossible, to give much credit to them.

Niebuhr, in his "History of Rome," considers the common account of the Roman kings to be formed from a number of poems and traditionary lays.

The writer from whom we derive our earliest information is Ennius, a Roman poet, who flourished in the time of the elder Cato, and who wrote the annals of Roman history in heroic verse: Polybius, Varro, Dionysius of

Halicarnassus, and Livy, have also an established reputation as writers on the same subject; but portions only of their works are now extant.

The popular account of the foundation of Rome, partaking much of the early poetic legends, will be related in the following pages; but the authentic history does not begin till after the taking of the city by the Gauls, on which occasion nearly all the early annals of Rome perished.

The first Romans, according to the legends preserved by tradition, and adopted by early historians, were of Trojan extraction. Æneas, son of Anchises, a Trojan prince, of royal descent, after a long voyage and numerous adventures, landed on the coast of Latium, in Italy, entered into amicable intercourse with the people, and espoused the daughter of Latinus, king of that country.

After the death of Latinus, Æneas came into quiet possession of the throne of Latium, a territory of no great extent, its limits being only from Alba to the Tiber, a space of about six miles. This state subsisted for 430 years, from the arrival of Æneas in Italy to the building of Rome.

THE VESTAL'S PUNISHMENT.

After a period of four centuries the Latian kingdom was usurped by Amulius, the brother of the lawful monarch, Numitor, whom he had deposed. In order to secure the possession of the throne, Amulius had put to death the son of Numitor, and forced his daughter Silvia to devote herself as a priestess of the goddess Vesta, which obliged her to remain unmarried. Silvia broke her vow, and became the mother of Romulus and Remus, who were twin brothers.

Some incredible tales are told concerning her temptation to the commission of a crime deemed unpardonable in a priestess of Vesta. Some authors relate that Silvia was condemned to suffer the punishment inflicted on the Vestal virgins for similar offences—that of being buried alive; and her helpless children were ordered to be cast into the Tiber. Through the remonstrances of the usurper's daughter, the sentence was changed to perpetual imprisonment, from which Silvia was afterwards released, when Amulius was driven from the throne.

THE SHEPHERD AND THE TWINS.

THE twin children of Silvia were doomed to die by exposure in a wooden trough, or skiff, which was turned adrift upon the waters of the river Tiber. The stream had at that time overflowed its banks; the skiff was driven by the current to the foot of the Palatine hill, where it upset, and the infants were cast upon the shore.

Faustulus, the king's chief herdsman, hearing the wailing of the poor outcasts, came to the spot, and rescued them from destruction.

According to the legends of the times, the children were first nourished by a wolf, which came to drink by the river's side; and we are told that they remained under the shelter of a fig-tree, where they were fostered by the animal. When they wanted other food, woodpeckers brought it; and other birds hovered round to drive away the insects that would have annoyed or injured them.

The wondrous sight was seen by the herdsman, who carried the infants to his wife, and

she became their foster-mother. They were brought up with the sons of Faustulus, and

soon became the stoutest of shepherd lads. They fought bravely with wild beasts and robbers, and shared the booty with their companions.

The shepherds were often engaged in disputes with those of the deposed king Numitor; and in one of these contests Remus was taken prisoner, and carried before him as a robber.

Faustulus, on learning what had occurred, hastened to Alba with Romulus, and discovered to Numitor and the two youths the secret of their birth and singular preservation.

The grandsons of Numitor were resolved to punish the tyrant Amulius; and, aided by the faithful comrades with whom they had grown up, they slew the usurper, and the people of Alba again received Numitor as their lawful king.

ANCIENT AUGURIES.

THE love of their former home drew the brothers back to the banks of the Tiber. They resolved to found a new colony, for which Numitor assigned them a district.

A dispute arising between the youths respecting the situation of their new city, it was agreed to settle the affair by augury.

Augury, or the attempt to foretell future events by certain appearances of nature, was a very common practice among the nations of

Italy, and formed a great part of the religion of these barbarous times. The flight of birds, thunder and lightning, the appearances of the entrails of certain animals recently slaughtered, were principally used in augury. The utmost regard was paid to the prognostics that the augur drew from his observations. Thunder to the *left* was a happy presage; lightning to the east, if it did not fall to the ground, was equally so. Even the manner in which fowls

collected their food was resorted to when other signs failed. *The sacred chickens*, under the care of the augurs, were often craftily kept from their morning supply, or furnished with it, according as it suited the purposes of these pretended diviners into futurity. No war was undertaken, nor were any persons raised to royal or public offices, without consulting the auguries. This practice, which had its origin in the credulity of ignorance and false notions of religion, continued for seven hundred years, but was retained as a mere engine of state policy long after the better knowledge of the people had taught them the folly of these ceremonies.

It was also the custom for the chief pontiff or priest to note down on a whited table the events of the year, such as prodigies, or unusual appearances in nature, eclipses, scarcity, signal events in time of war, and the death of celebrated statesmen. This was done in the plainest manner, and in few words. The table was set up in the house of the pontiff. The notes of several years were collected into books. This practice, derived from very ancient times, continued to the days of the Gracchi.

ROMULUS THE FIRST KING.

ROMULUS, being the chief of the new colony, decreed that it should be called *Rome*, in allusion to his own name. When the habitations were completed, the people were called together by order of their leader, to whom a speech full of wisdom is attributed on the occasion. The citizens, having experienced his courage and capacity, unanimously chose him for their king.

Romulus now assumed a dress that might give him an air of greater majesty. He appointed lictors, or officers, to attend him in public, each bearing an axe tied up in the

middle of a bundle of rods—a symbol of power among the small states of the neighbouring country. His power was confined within narrow limits, the rule being divided between the prince, the senate, and the assembly of the people.

In order to increase the number of inhabitants, Romulus made his colony a place of refuge for strangers, exiles, slaves, and robbers; and criminals found a welcome there. The latter were all made soldiers; and in a short time Rome began to be formidable to the neighbouring states.

Roman Lictor.

THE DEATH OF REMUS.

ROMULUS, having marked out the limits of his city, began to raise a wall of earth around the space he intended to build on. Remus, still indignant at the unjust treatment he had received, and eager to show his contempt for the humble fortifications, leaped over the wall. This action provoked Romulus, who, it is related, struck his brother dead on the spot by a blow. This frightful act of revenge, strange

to say, was considered as an omen that no enemy should cross the walls but to their own destruction.

Our common idea of a city surrounded by a wall does not accord with the little assemblage of dwellings that are said to owe their origin to Romulus.

Rome at its beginning was but a mean village, composed of about a thousand huts, without upper stories, and void of any species of architectural ornament. The palace, as it is termed, of Romulus was constructed of rushes, and covered with thatch. Hardy, bold, and warlike, the first Romans sought only to secure power and influence among the neighbouring states; fine buildings, wealth, and luxuries were unknown to them; nor did their dwelling-place deserve the name of a city until it was rebuilt, after having been burnt by the Gauls, 360 years after its foundation. About the time of the first Punic, or Carthaginian, war, Rome began to be adorned with temples; and high roads and aqueducts were constructed. The streets were not paved till 170 years before the Christian era.

THE SABINE WOMEN.

YEAR OF ROME, 1.

ROME appears to have been at first without female inhabitants. The fact seems scarcely credible, that women should not have joined the influx of strangers who were eagerly received into the new colony, or that the original founders should have no connexions in the parent state of Alba, or Latium.

The Romans found great difficulty in making any alliance with the neighbouring states. Romulus vainly tried to make treaties with them,—a measure needful to render marriages lawful between individuals of different nations, both in Italy and in Greece; but the wild

character of the new settlers caused them to be repelled with distrust.

According to the old legend, Romulus had recourse to stratagem. He proclaimed a religious festival and games to be held in his new city, to which the Latin and Sabine people came as to a fair, being invited by Romulus to attend them. Neither religion nor hospitality could protect the guests; in the midst of the

Roman Matron.

ceremonies the Sabine women were seized and forcibly carried off by the Romans.

Several of the Latin cities took arms to avenge the insulting outrage upon the Sabines, but were unsuccessful.

Tatius, the Sabine king, brought a powerful army against Rome, which Romulus was not able to resist by open contest, and he retired into his city. The Sabines now began to storm the town, and victory remained long uncertain. At length those Sabine women who had become the wives of the Romans, who had torn them from their own people, being eager to reconcile the hostile parties, rushed between the combatants and brought about a reconciliation.

History relates, to the honour of Romulus, that he rewarded the women who had saved Rome with many privileges for themselves, and the class of Matrons. The exemptions which were granted to them only serve to indicate how servile was the condition of woman among rude, uncivilized nations.

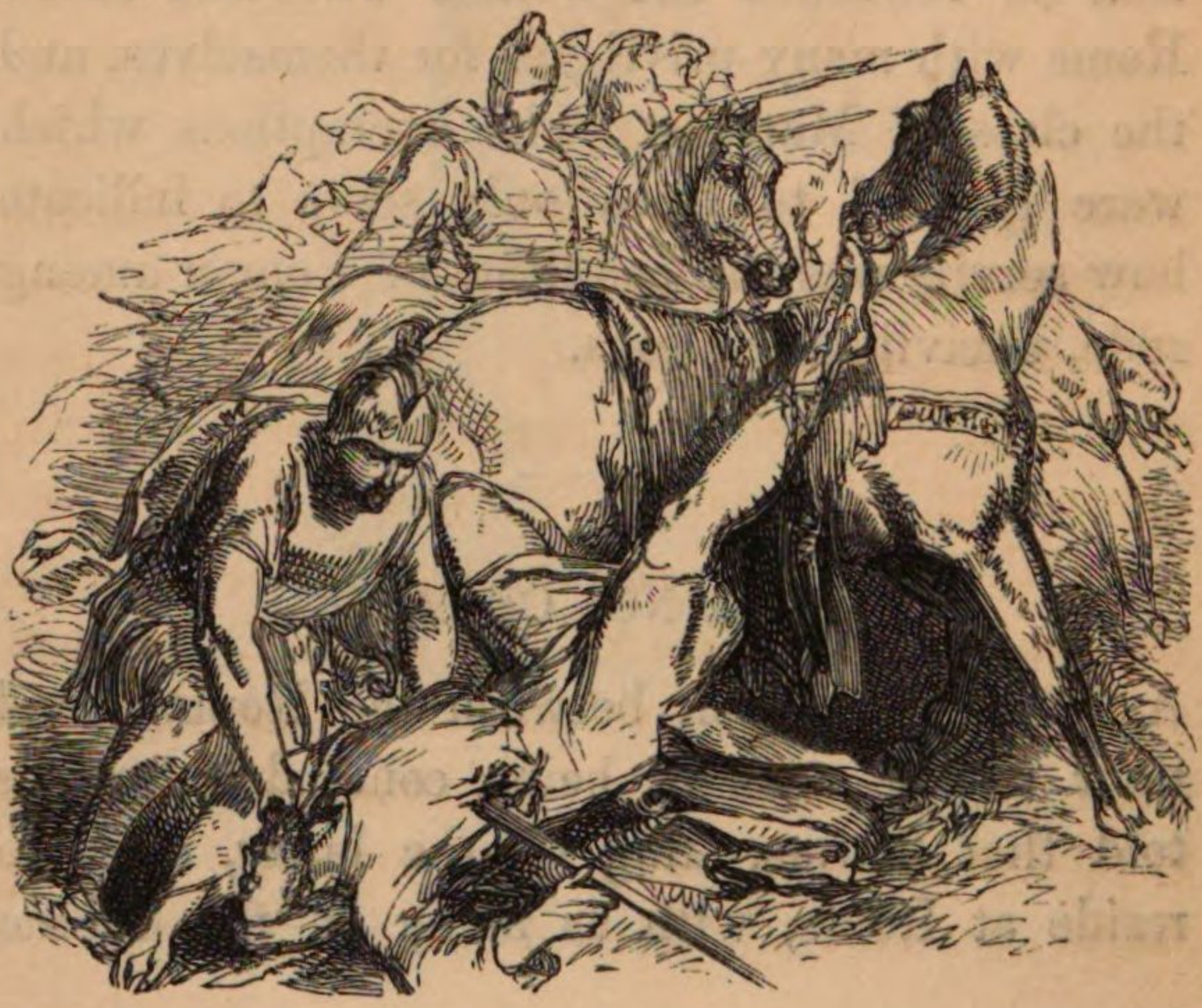
TWO KINGS OF ROME.

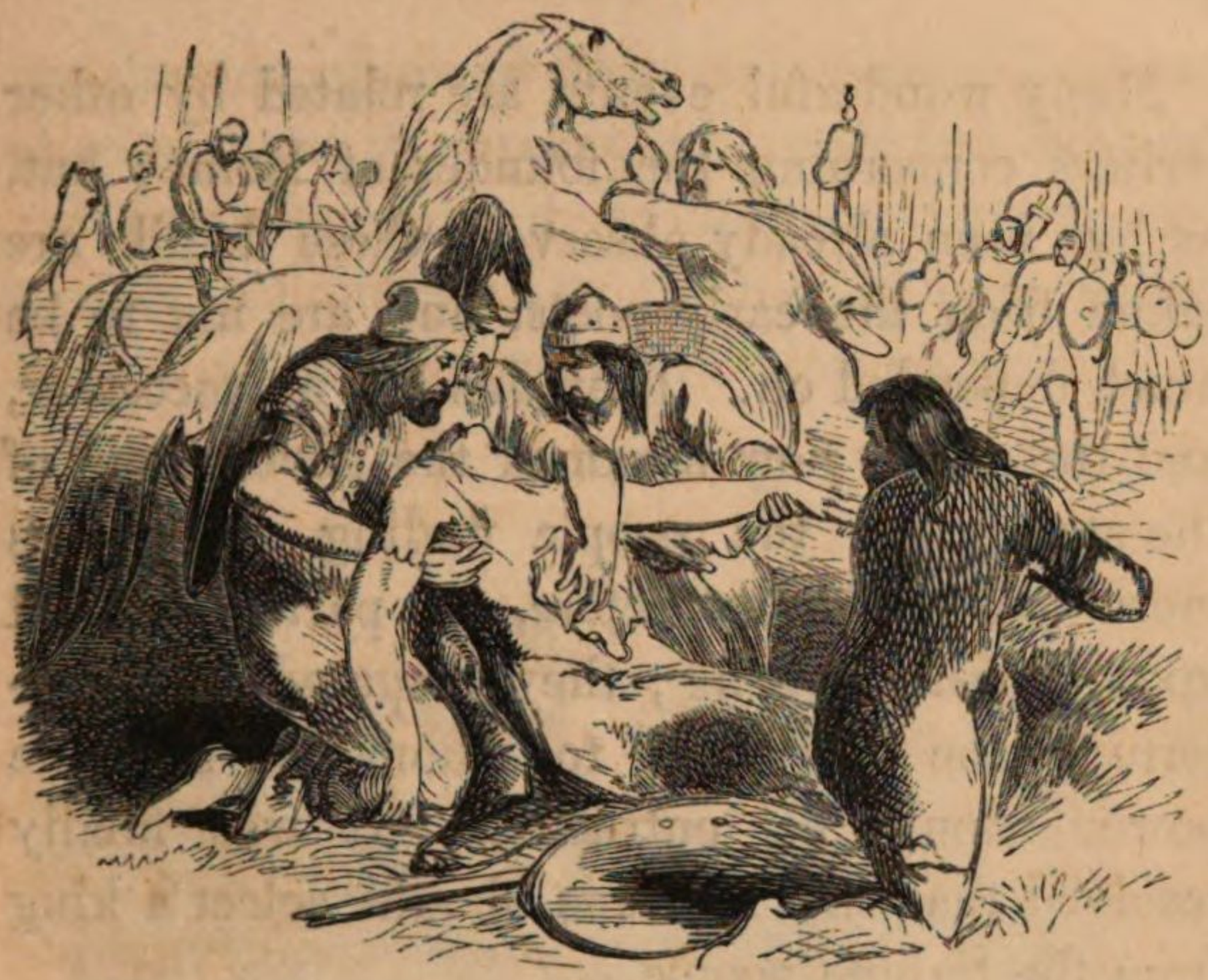
A TREATY of union between the Romans and their former enemies being concluded, we are told that Tatius, king of the latter, came to reside at Rome, with as many of the Sabine

people as chose to follow him; these were incorporated in the Roman tribes. By this treaty the Romans became more powerful, and the number of inhabitants was doubled.

The people were governed by their own senate and kings; and public tranquillity seems to have been maintained under these regulations.

After a few years Tatius, going, according to custom, to a sacrifice at Lavinium, was slain in revenge for some injury he had committed. Romulus, who had accompanied the king, was suffered to depart, no enmity existing against him.





DEATH OF ROMULUS.

YEAR OF ROME, 37.

ROMULUS was now sole king of Rome. During the remainder of his reign he conquered several of the neighbouring towns. According to some accounts, success and prosperity rendered him tyrannical. He no longer consulted the senate upon the affairs of the people, but assembled the members of it merely for form. A conspiracy was made to take away his life, and he is said to have been assassinated during a review of the army on a plain outside the city walls.

Many wonderful events are related by other writers concerning the founder of Rome; but, as has been already observed, these details are taken from the early poets, and are not to be much depended on. Romulus left no successor, and the senate now assumed the government of the state; but the people finding themselves more oppressed than before, all parties insisted upon choosing a king; they disputed only concerning the individual to whom the supreme power should be entrusted. It was finally resolved that the Romans should select a king from the Sabine people.

NUMA.

YEAR OF ROME, 40.

NUMA POMPILIUS, who had married the daughter of the deceased Sabine king Tatius, a man revered by all for his knowledge and virtue, was chosen for the ruler of the united people.

According to the ideas of religious observances in those dark ages, Numa would not accept the sovereign power without consulting, by means of augury, the will of the divinities he worshipped, neither was he desirous of the new office;

but, having obtained favourable omens, he complied with the wishes of the Romans and Sabines.

Numa is recorded to have received wise advice and instruction from a nymph, called Egeria, whom the poets describe as living in a

Numa and the Nymph.

grotto, beside a fountain. Hither the king resorted to muse in solitude upon the duties of his station, and to profit by the teachings of his guardian nymph.

Among the numerous reformations that this wise and good king effected, none is more deserving of notice than his successful attempts to make the people *honest*, by establishing the

social virtue *Good Faith* as a goddess, and causing her to receive divine honours. This invention, fitted to the rude notions of the age, contributed to render the Romans faithful to their treaties, and, as private citizens, exact in fulfilling their contracts.

A strict regard to truth became universal among them, so that Polybius, the historian of the Roman people, gave them the true glory of "ever keeping their word."

Numa was a lover of peace, and, therefore, had no occupation for the soldiery of his predecessor, who had been continually at war with the states adjacent. These people were now idle, and much embarrassed him. At length Numa resolved to distribute among them the conquered territory which remained uncultivated, thus accustoming them to peaceful and regular toil, and giving them possessions of their own to defend in case of invasion or encroachment by the neighbouring countries.

This excellent monarch also amended the division of time. The year then consisted ot ten months, and began in March. He added two, January and February, and appointed January to be the first month of the year, and made use of all his knowledge to cause it to agree with the courses of the sun and moon.

THE BURIAL OF NUMA.

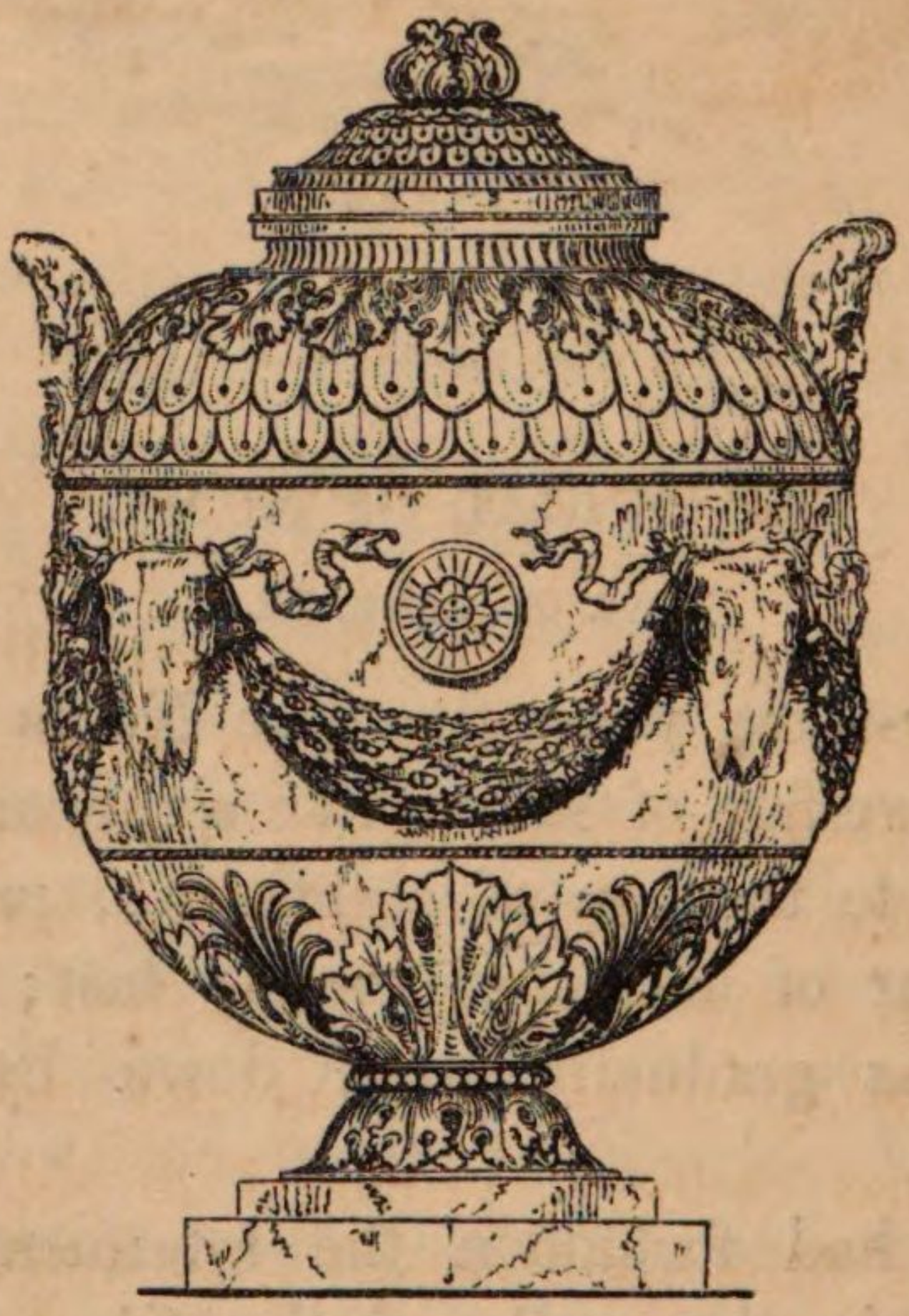
YEAR OF ROME, 82.

For forty-three years the wise Numa presided over the welfare of Rome, like a tutelary angel. He lived to the age of eighty-two, preserving the vigour of his mind to the last; but his frame was gradually worn down by bodily disorders.

Numa had forbidden the interment of the dead within the walls of the city. He had chosen for himself a tomb beyond the Tiber, at the foot of a hill. To this spot his body was

borne by the senators themselves; the whole people following with tears and lamentations.

Not only the Romans, but the neighbouring states also, were grieved for the loss of Numa Pompilius, as for a friend who had reconciled their disputes, and communicated by his example a better state of morals to all around.



Funeral Urn.

WHIMPER

THE HORATII AND CURIATII.

TULLUS HOSTILIUS, a man of brave and warlike character, was chosen to succeed Numa. Disputes soon began to arise between Rome and Alba; their peace-maker was no more, and each side prepared for war. King Tullus proposed to the Alban general to end the quarrel by a single combat between themselves; but the general, who, it seems, was not remarkable for personal courage, proposed to select three champions from each camp, who might decide the dispute, and spare the lives of the chiefs. Tullus accepted the proposal.

There was great emulation among the young

warriors for the honour of being chosen a champion on this occasion. Three brothers were selected from each army, remarkable for strength and dexterity in the use of their weapons. Horatius, the father of the Roman youths, left them to follow their own inclinations; and being informed of their resolution to accept the challenge, embraced them, and, lifting up his eyes to heaven, exclaimed, "I am a happy father!"

On the day appointed for the combat the several champions appeared upon the plain between the two armies, each to meet his adversary. At the moment that the spectators expected to see them engage in fierce encounter, they quitted their arms, and ran to embrace each other.

Charmed with the action, and grieved that such generous spirits should waste their lives in rivalry so cruel, the people began to murmur at their kings; but a new spectacle claimed their attention. The combat began, and long continued equal. The eldest of the Horatii at length received a mortal wound; the second shared the same fate, and expired upon the body of his brother. The Alban army raised shouts of exultation, while despair spread amid the Roman camp. Such hope as bloodshed and

death can afford yet rested upon the Alban brothers being all wounded, while the third of the Roman youths was still unhurt and undaunted.

Unable to sustain the attacks of three at one time, the Roman youth pretended fear, and hastily fled before his pursuers, endeavouring to separate them; he succeeded: he turned round upon the first, and slew him; the second shared the same fate. The third was in no condition to fight, being scarcely able to support himself on his shield. Horatius exclaimed, "To the glory of Rome I sacrifice thee!" and thus perished the last of the three Curiatii.

THE ROMAN MAIDEN.

HORATIUS, on advancing towards the city with the tokens of victory, having his head surrounded with a crown of laurel, was surprised to see his sister hurrying forward with the crowd to meet him, unattended by her servants, and unaccompanied by her mother: this, according to the custom of the time, was an unseemly proceeding, which he attributed to her anxiety to congratulate him on his success.

The eagerness of the unfortunate maiden had another source. She was engaged to marry one of the Curiatii, and had escaped from her home to learn his fate. When she beheld the victor bearing in triumph the military robe of the slain youth, the robe that she had worked with her own hands, she tore her hair, beat her breast, and bitterly reproached her brother. Horatius, still heated with conquest, and enraged by her words and grief, so untimely, as he considered it, stabbed her to the heart, exclaiming, "Go to thy lover, thou who forgettest thy brother and thy country! Thus let every Roman perish, who laments an enemy of Rome." On he went, without pity or remorse, to his father's house. The stern parent approved of the deed, and refused to his unfortunate daughter a place in the tomb of her family.

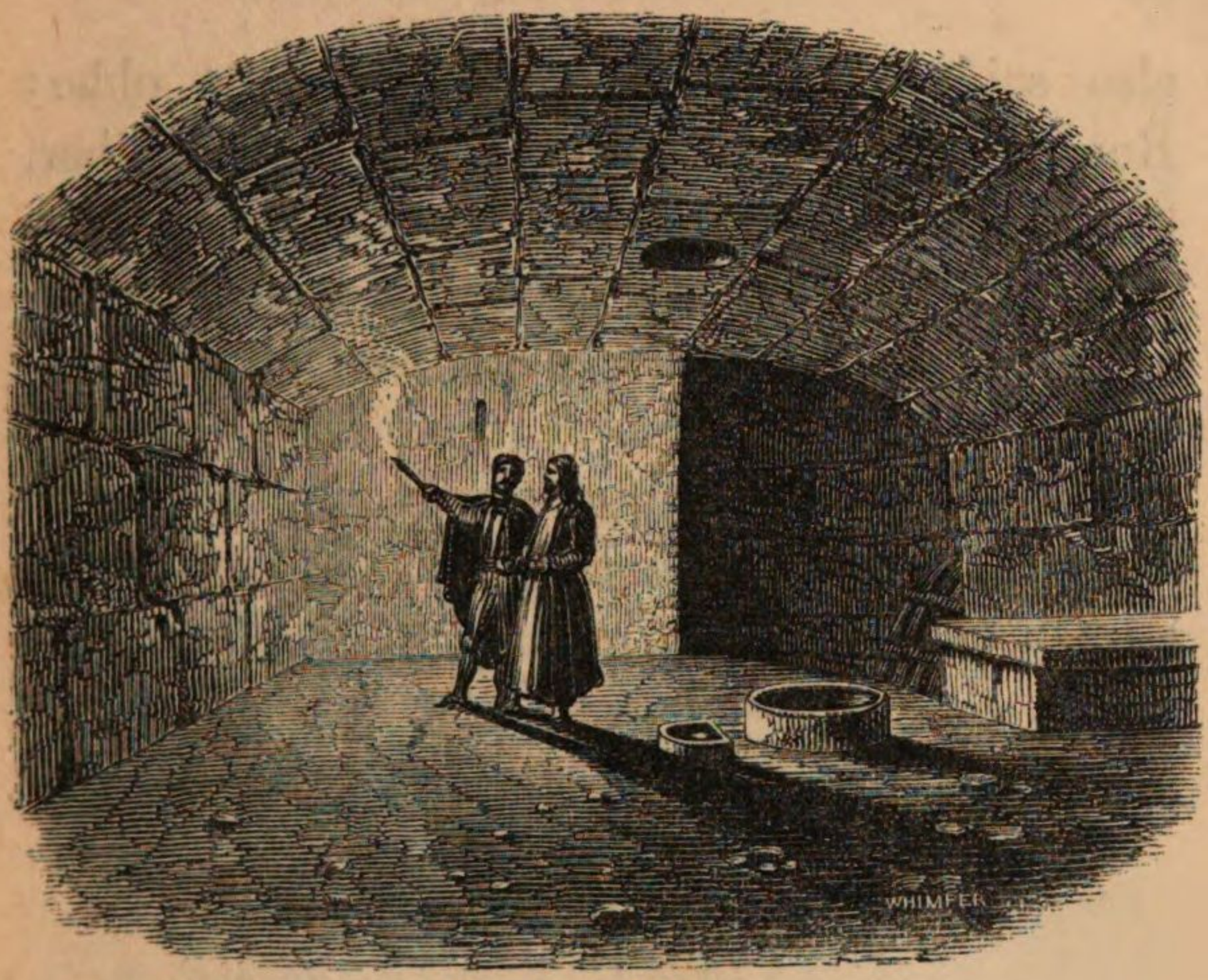
A feeling more accordant with justice and nature induced some of the chief citizens to cite young Horatius before the king, Tullus, on a charge of murder; the law forbidding that any person should be put to death uncondemned. He had some difficulty in escaping the just punishment of his cruelty, and was finally obliged to pass under the yoke, his life being spared at the earnest entreaties of his father.

The yoke was formed of two spears set upright, and a third laid across them so low, that the culprit was forced to stoop as he passed beneath it.

Punishment of Horatius.

THE ROMAN SATURNALIA.

TULLUS HOSTILIUS, the third king of Rome, who succeeded Numa, B. C. 673, enlarged the Roman territory by many conquests. In a fierce battle with his enemies the king made a vow that, if his troops should be successful, he would institute a festival in honour of Saturn and Ops. This festival was the well-known *Saturnalia*. It was celebrated by entertainments given to the slaves and dependents. They were allowed to eat at the tables of their masters, to wear their clothes, to reprove their faults, to ridicule them, and to speak freely on every subject. The Saturnalia was celebrated in December.



The Ancus Prison.

FOURTH KING OF ROME.

YEAR OF ROME, 113.

ANCUS MARCIUS, who succeeded Tullus, was believed to be the son of Pompilia, daughter of Numa. He was desirous of imitating that wise prince, and would have devoted himself to works of peace; but the warlike spirit of the neighbouring people prevented him from following his inclination. He made successful war with the Latins, took several towns, and transferred the inhabitants to Rome, where he gave them the Aventine hill to dwell on. He is

also said to have founded Ostia, the oldest Roman colony, at the mouth of the Tiber. Ships of considerable size could formerly run into the mouth of the river, but now it is inaccessible in consequence of neglect and accumulation of the mud.

The oldest remaining monument of ancient Rome, the prison, was built by Ancus, and was formed out of a stone quarry in the Capitoline hill.

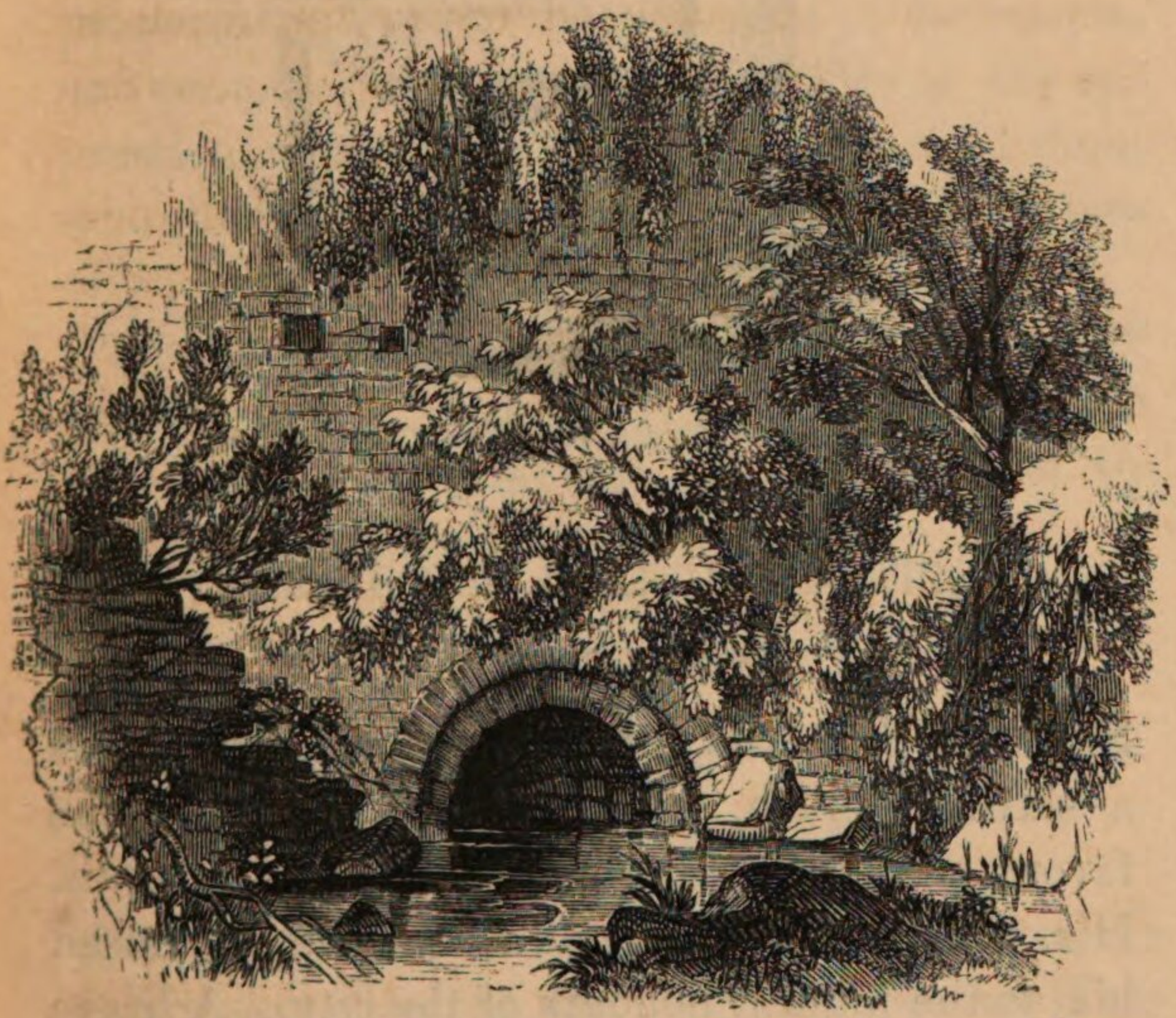
TARQUINIUS PRISCUS.

YEAR OF ROME, 137.

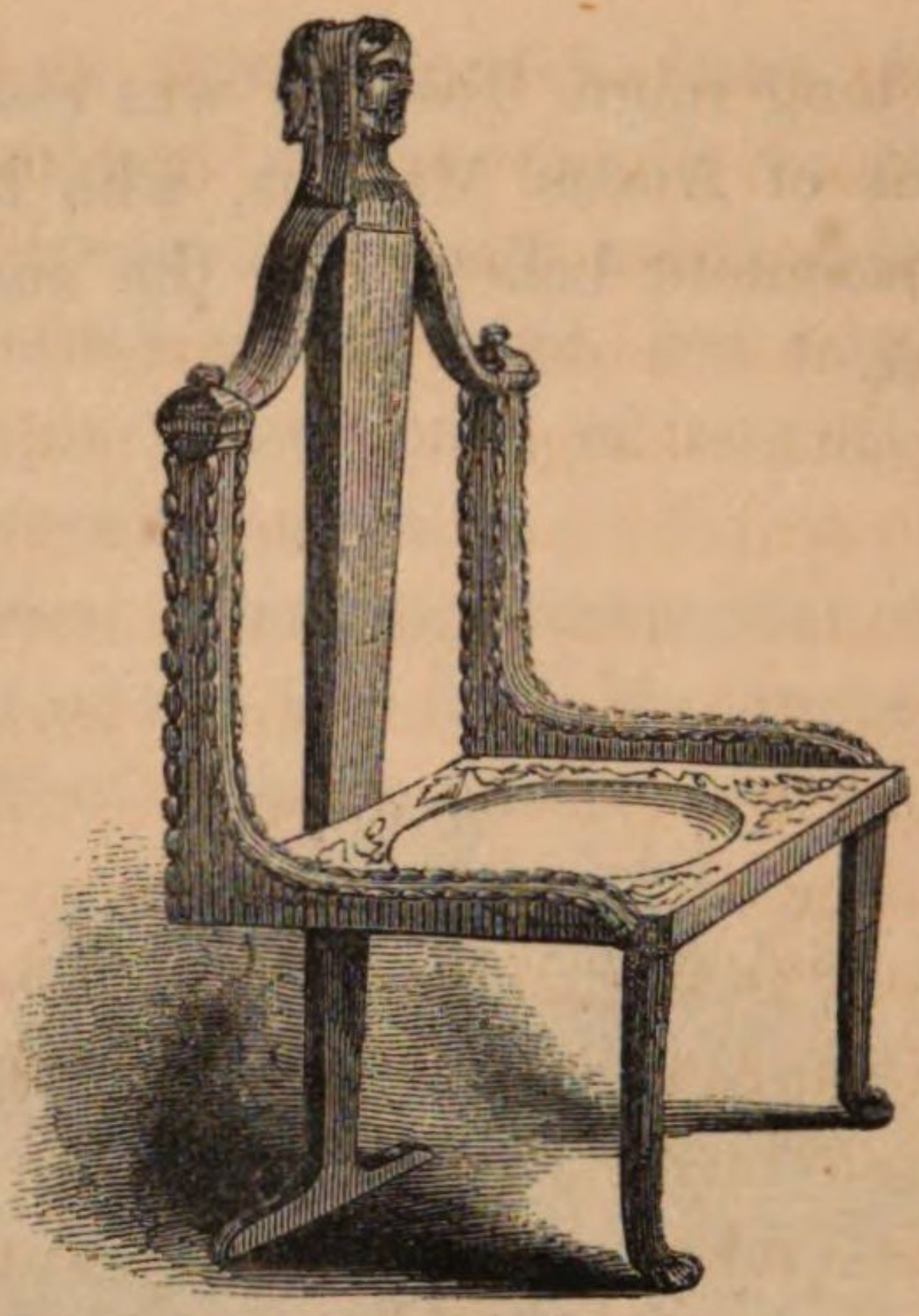
UPON the decease of every king a successor was chosen by the nation. Tarquinius Priscus, who had been much in favour with the late king, and was popular in consequence of his great wealth and liberality, became the fifth king of Rome. Tarquin engaged in wars with the Etrurians, a people inhabiting a large country; they are sometimes called the Tuscans.

After the termination of these contests Tarquin began to improve the city. The common sewers, which have been the wonder and admiration of ancient and modern times, were first undertaken by him.

After a long reign, Tarquin was assassinated by the sons of Ancus Marcius, who had never without discontent beheld him the successor of their father.



Roman Sewers.



Ancient Throne, or Judgment Seat.

SERVIUS TULLIUS, SIXTH KING.

YEAR OF ROME, 175.

SERVIUS TULLIUS, sixth king of Rome, was a slave by birth, who gradually obtained the favour of the late king and his queen, Tanaquil. His wise and noble conduct at length raised him to the highest honours of the city. A brave warrior, sagacious in council, and eloquent as a public speaker, he so gained the esteem of the people, that he was raised to the rank of patrician, and had a seat in the senate.

Being so great a favourite with the people, he easily obtained the throne of his father-in-law, for he had married Tarquinia, the daughter of Tarquin, who confided great part of the public affairs to his management; and thus he was enabled to seat himself on the throne, without being elected according to ancient usage. The patricians were highly displeased with this proceeding; but Servius appealed to the people, and promised them more freedom from the oppression of the higher orders, and caused those who had no land to receive their due portion of it.

Servius Tullius was inhumanly murdered by his son-in-law, Lucius Tarquinius, son of the last king, who was urged on to the deed by Tullia, the king's younger daughter.

THE SIBYLLINE BOOKS.

AMONG the wondrous tales of those times is the following. During the reign of the last Tarquin, a woman came to the palace with nine oracular books, which she offered for sale at a high price. The king refused to give the money; she withdrew, burned three, and

returned after a time, asking the same price for the remaining six. Being driven away, she burned three more, and again returned, demanding the same sum for the remaining three.

This singular proceeding made the king desirous to see the contents of the books. The woman having received the money, exhorted the Romans to preserve the books with the utmost care. She then disappeared, and was never more seen. These books were made of palm leaves, and the oracles were written upon them partly in verse, and partly in symbolical hieroglyphics.

BRUTUS AND THE ORACLE.

YEAR OF ROME, 243.

TARQUINIUS, afterwards named *Superbus*, from his haughty and tyrannical conduct, was the last king of Rome. He suffered neither the senate nor the people to take any share in public affairs, while wealth and merit were the objects of oppression. He put to death Marcus Junius, a venerable man, the father of the celebrated Brutus, and, to obtain his wealth, caused his eldest son to be assassinated. Brutus the Younger escaped only by feigning idiocy.

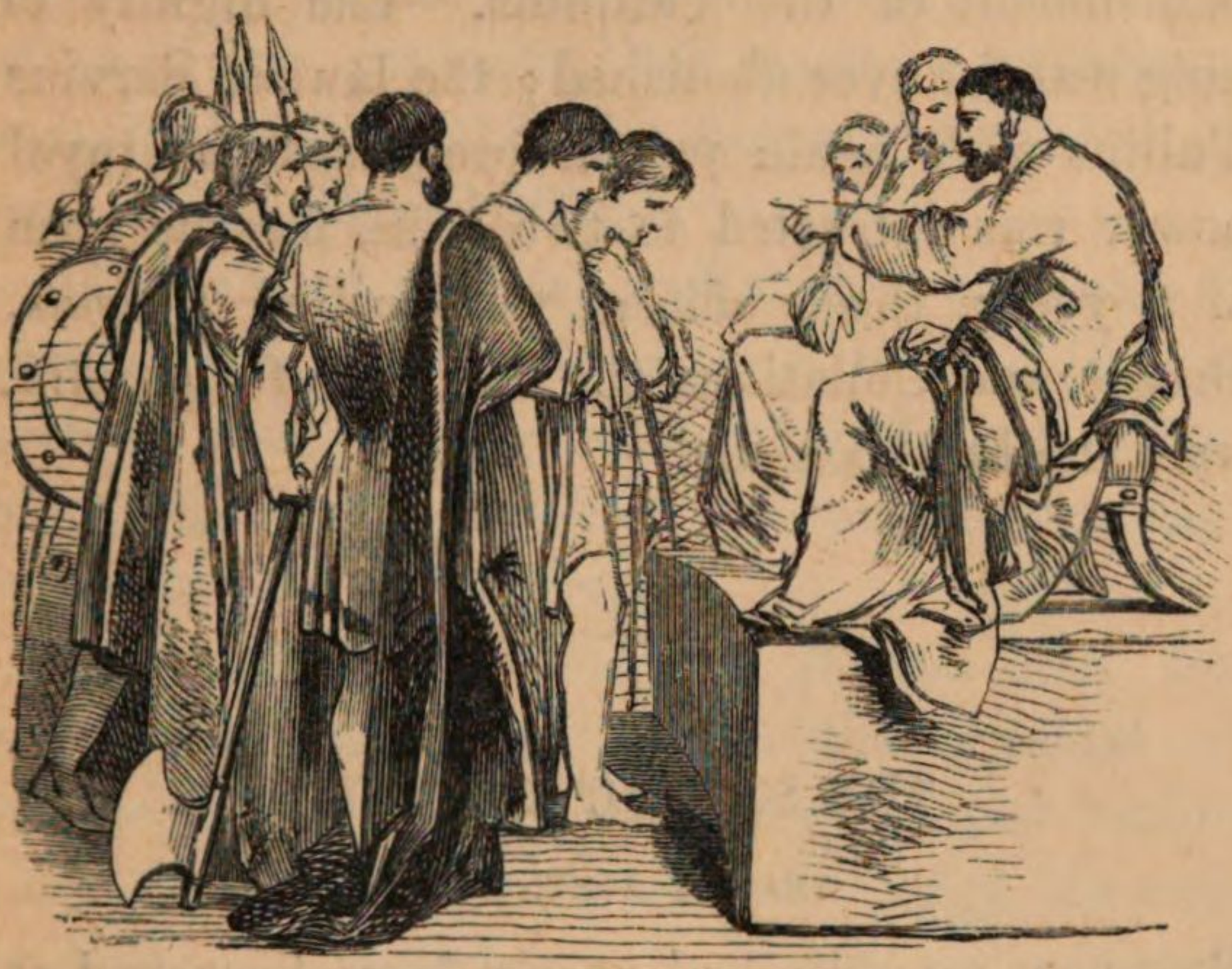
A dreadful plague having prevailed in the

city, Tarquin resolved to send his two sons to Delphi, to consult the oracle there; more especially as an occurrence of little importance in itself, but deemed ominous by the superstitious people, had taken place during a sacrifice.

The Pythian, or Delphic oracle, was then in great repute, and from the ambiguous replies of the half insane priestess nations anticipated their prosperity or downfall. Rich presents were prepared for the temple, bribery of course having no small power in procuring favourable predictions. Brutus, who was ordered to attend the sons of Tarquin, as their jester, only took with him a rod of elder; this folly confirmed the notion of his idiocy, and brought upon him the ridicule of his companions; but the rod of elder was hollow, and filled with pure gold.

Having fulfilled their commission, the youths inquired who should succeed to the throne? "*He who shall first kiss his mother*," was the characteristic reply, which, like all oracular replies, admitted of several interpretations.

On their return to Rome the sons of Tarquin both saluted their mother at the same time; but Brutus threw himself upon the ground, and kissed the earth, the common mother of all living.



BANISHMENT OF THE TARQUINS.

YEAR OF ROME, 243.

Not only avarice and tyranny, but other evils were inflicted on the defenceless, by the fierce and lawless passions of those in authority at this period. The outrage committed by Sextus, the son of Tarquin, on a noble lady, named Lucretia, was too infamous to be borne tamely, and brought ruin upon the family of Tarquin.

The time was now arrived for Brutus to throw off his assumed character. All ranks united in one common feeling of indignation, and, with one voice, the citizens decreed the

banishment of the Tarquins. The dignity of king was for ever abolished; the laws of Servius Tullius were again put in force, and the royal power was intrusted to two men, for the term of a year: these officers were called *Consuls*. Brutus, and Collatinus, the husband of Lucretia, were the first Consuls.

THE SONS OF BRUTUS.

YEAR OF ROME, 244.

THE new republic had nearly been destroyed at the beginning by a conspiracy. The young patricians, unaccustomed to the austere form of republican rule, in which the laws, not the monarch, were to reign, could not bear to see themselves almost on a level with the people.

The sons of Tarquin, influenced by these men, sent ambassadors to demand their estates, and gave directions to foment public dissatisfaction. While the people were employed in loading carriages with the property, the envoys found means to draw some near relations of the consuls into a plot against them. The two sons of Brutus were among the number. But notwithstanding the precaution of the conspirators to

keep their proceedings from their servants, a slave of one, suspecting his master's intentions, remained concealed at the door of the apartment, and saw and heard all that passed.

He revealed the plot to Valerius, a senator of great worth, who took the man under his protection, and, having collected sufficient assistance, seized the papers of the conspirators, and imprisoned their leaders.

Early the next morning Brutus and his colleague took their seat on the tribunal of justice, and the prisoners were placed before them for trial:—The father must judge his own children. Too plain was their guilt: the youths stood in silence, pleading only by their tears.

"Titus and Tiberius," said Brutus sternly, "what have you to offer in your defence?" They were thrice called on to plead, but tears were the only reply. The chief part of the senators, touched with compassion, murmured, "Banish them, banish them!" Collatinus wept, and Valerius himself seemed to relent. The people stood in trembling expectation of the sentence.

Brutus at length rose up; with a steady voice he spoke thus: "Lictors, I deliver them over to you; the rest is your part."

There was universal consternation in the

assembly; neither the mournful looks of the people, nor the bitter lamentations of the young men, who vainly called upon their father, could soften the inflexible judge. The offenders were executed in the presence of the consuls; Brutus looking at the cruel scene with a composed countenance.

After the execution he immediately quitted the tribunal, leaving the remainder of the business to his colleague.

Roman Consul.

THE SLAVE REWARDED.

COLLATINUS, being disposed to spare his nephews, allowed them a day to clear themselves of the charge, and even ordered the slave Vindicius to be restored to his masters. This aroused the indignation of the people, and of Valerius, who had promised with an oath to protect the slave. The lictors vainly attempted to force Vindicius from his protector, and Brutus was again called for. He told the people that he had condemned his sons in the character of a father, who had authority over

his children; but the fate of other delinquents he left to them.

The conspirators were condemned to die as rebels, the ambassadors excepted, who were spared out of respect for the law of nations.

The good faith manifested by Valerius to the slave is worthy of notice; so also is the justice of the people to him. He was deemed worthy to possess the liberty that he had secured to the Romans, who bestowed on him the privileges of a citizen, and a considerable sum of money.

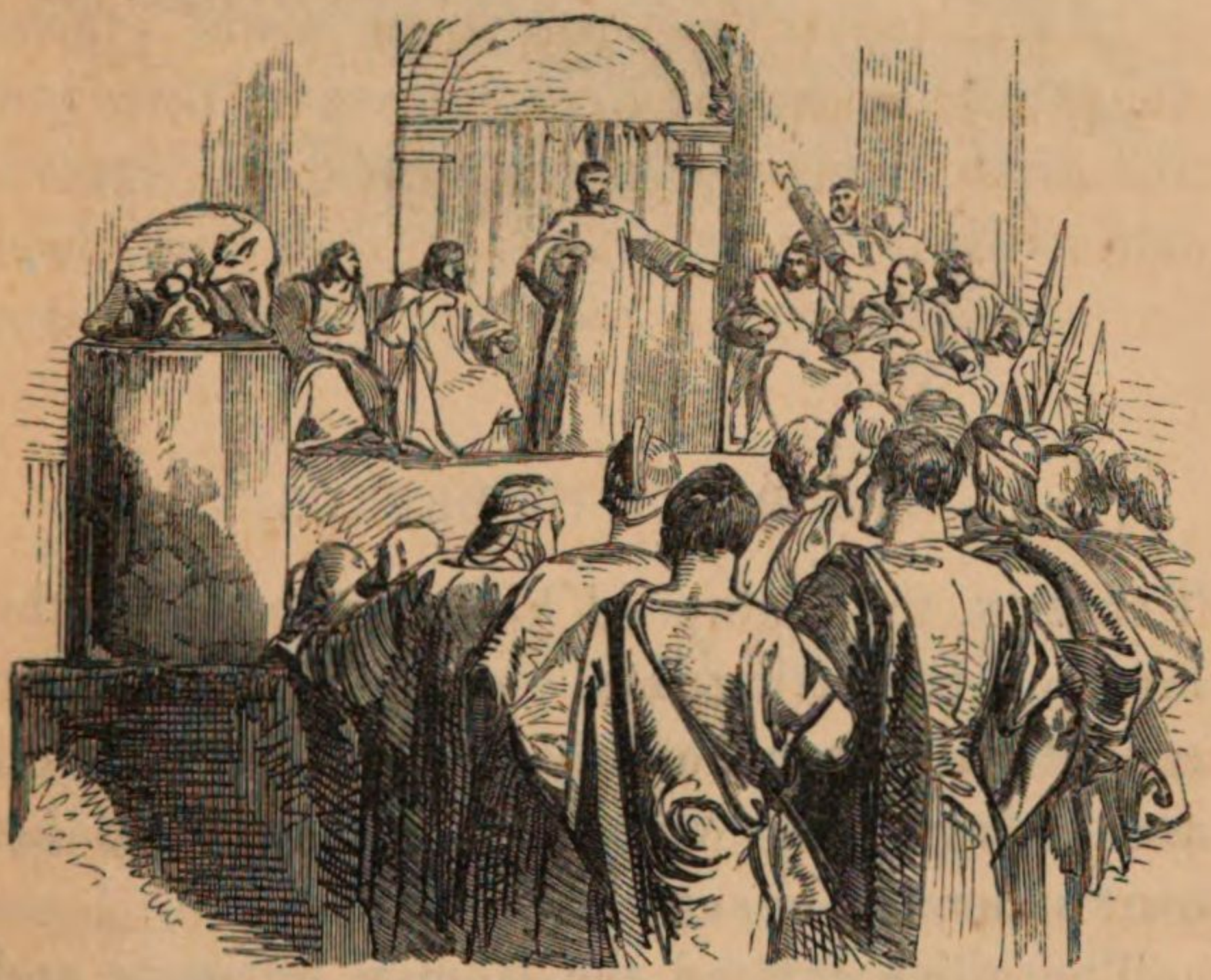
BRUTUS DEPOSING COLLATINUS.

THE consul Collatinus was not a suitable colleague for one so devoted to the liberties of his country as Brutus. The weak conduct of the former towards the conspirators had displeased the people; and suspicions were entertained that he still favoured the family of Tarquin, whose very name was odious to the Romans. Brutus resolved, with the support of the people, to depose Collatinus, and in a numerous assembly he openly declared his design.

"What," exclaimed he, "shall I spare you,

Collatinus, I who have not spared my own children?"

Then, addressing the people, he said, "As for you, O Romans, I leave you to confirm or reject the sentence I have pronounced. You are free to choose between Collatinus and Brutus for your consul; but be assured that you cannot have both."



Collatinus accused Brutus of betraying his friend; but the assembly would not hear his defence.

The deposed consul at length yielded to public opinion, and, still protesting his innocence, retired to Lavinium, where he lived in peace.

THE DEATH OF BRUTUS.

TARQUIN, the dethroned king, yet retained the hope of recovering his power by force. He sought assistance from the neighbouring states, and engaged the Veientes to unite with his own adherents in support of his cause.

The allies entered the Roman territory, and the consuls (for another had been chosen in the place of Collatinus), without delay, marched towards the enemy; Brutus took the command of the horse. The two armies being in sight of each other, Brutus advanced with his cavalry at the same time that Aruns, one of Tarquin's

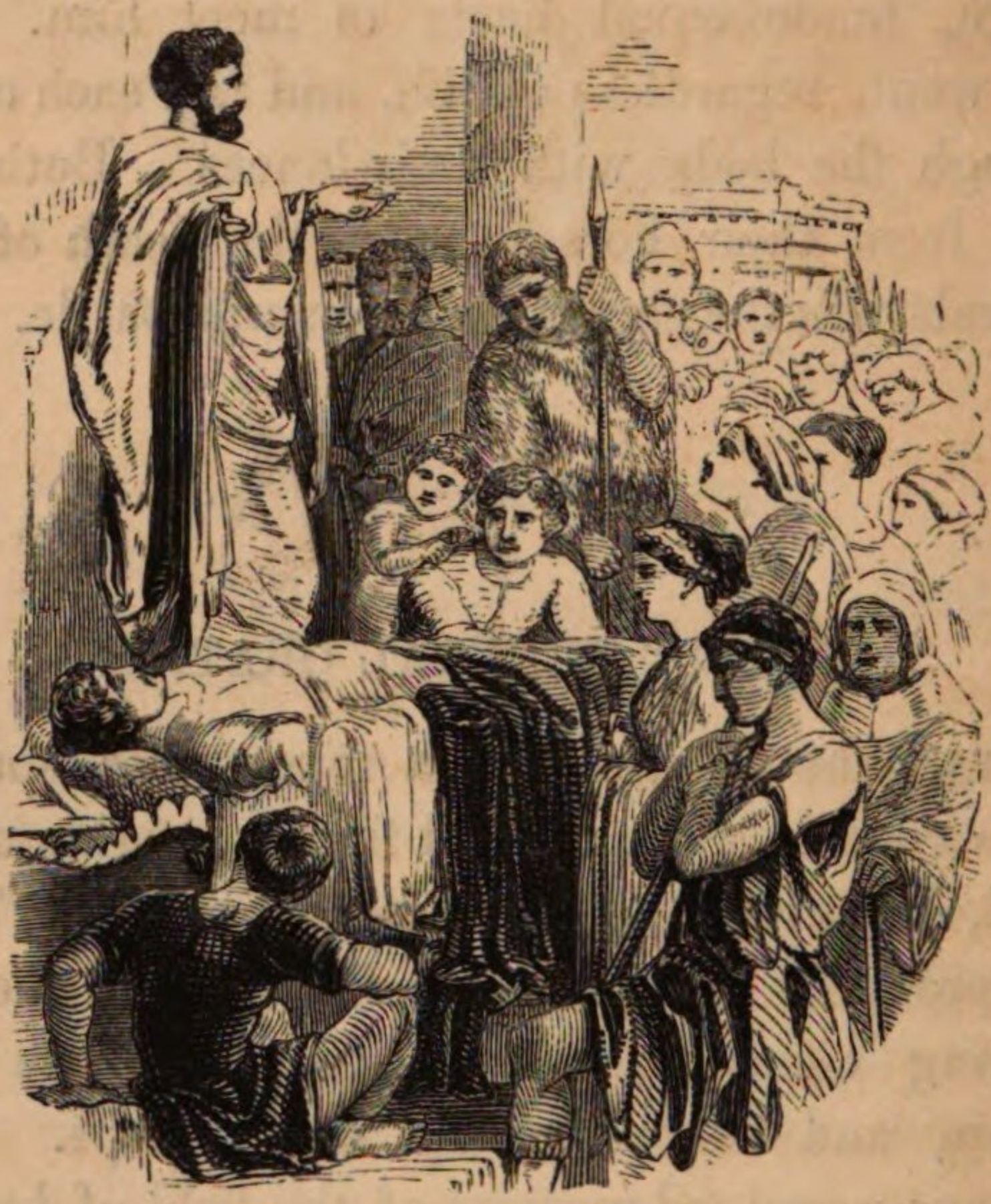
sons, was pushing onward with the enemy's horse, while his father followed with his legions. Aruns quickly discovered Brutus attended by the lictors, and, inflamed with rage, exclaimed, "There he is, the enemy who banished us; see how gallantly he rides with all my father's ensigns about him!" He instantly rushed forward, while the consul, perceiving his design, made equal haste to meet him. On they went, regardless of life, and ran each other through the body with their lances. Both fell dead from their horses; and the death of the generals was the signal for a general battle.

THE FIRST FUNERAL ORATION.

DURING the engagement a report was spread, that a voice had been heard from a neighbouring wood, declaring the Romans conquerors. This was probably a stratagem of Valerius, the remaining consul, in order to intimidate the enemy, and encourage his own troops. The Romans remained masters of the field of battle.

Rome lamented long and deeply the loss of their brave and inflexible leader. Funeral honours were paid to him in the camp; the

following day the body was taken to Rome on a magnificent bier; and Valerius pronounced his funeral oration. The women mourned for him as for a father.



HORATIUS COCLES DEFENDING THE BRIDGE.

YEAR OF ROME, 246.

PORSENA, king of Clusium, in Etruria, is recorded by the early historians to have been a formidable enemy of Rome at this period, and a powerful supporter of Tarquin and his family. In order to keep the people in good spirits, and to prevent any one from taking part with the Tarquins, the rulers were careful to supply them with bread at a low price, while the wealthy classes taxed themselves higher, and would lay no burthens on the poor during the war. They adhered to the generous and equitable maxim, that the lower ranks paid

tribute to the commonwealth by training up children who would in time be able to defend it.

Porsena is described as taking up his position on the banks of the Tiber, and driving the Romans out of their fort on the Janiculum hill. The consuls then made the troops pass the river, and drew them up in defence of the bridge. Here a severe contest ensued, till the two generals in command were slain, when a panic seized the Romans, who fled into the city.

Again we meet with a hero. Horatius Cocles, and two other valiant men, posted themselves at the entrance of the bridge, and long defended it. The weapons of his two colleagues being broken, they retired, being directed by Horatius to advise the consuls, from him, to destroy the other end of the bridge. Meanwhile he sustained the continued attack of the enemy alone. The heaps of slain that had fallen beneath his weapons formed a rampart around him, and his buckler covered him from missiles thrown at him by the foe.

Being at length wounded, and the signal given that the bridge was now broken down, the gallant youth leaped into the Tiber, and swam across amid a shower of arrows.

MUTIUS SCÆVOLA BEFORE PORSENA.

ANOTHER incident of a courageous but less noble character took place during this war.

Rome was almost wearied out with the long siege, when Mutius, a young Roman of noble birth, desired the senate to permit his passing the Tiber, and going into the hostile camp; only entreating that, if he should fall in the dangerous enterprise, his zeal for the public good should not be forgotten. The consuls encouraged him to undertake any means of aiding the state in the present exigence.

Having put on the habit of an Etrurian, and being well skilled in the language, he easily obtained admission into the camp, and made

his way even to the king's tent. Porsena's secretary sat there, busied in giving audiences and receiving petitions.

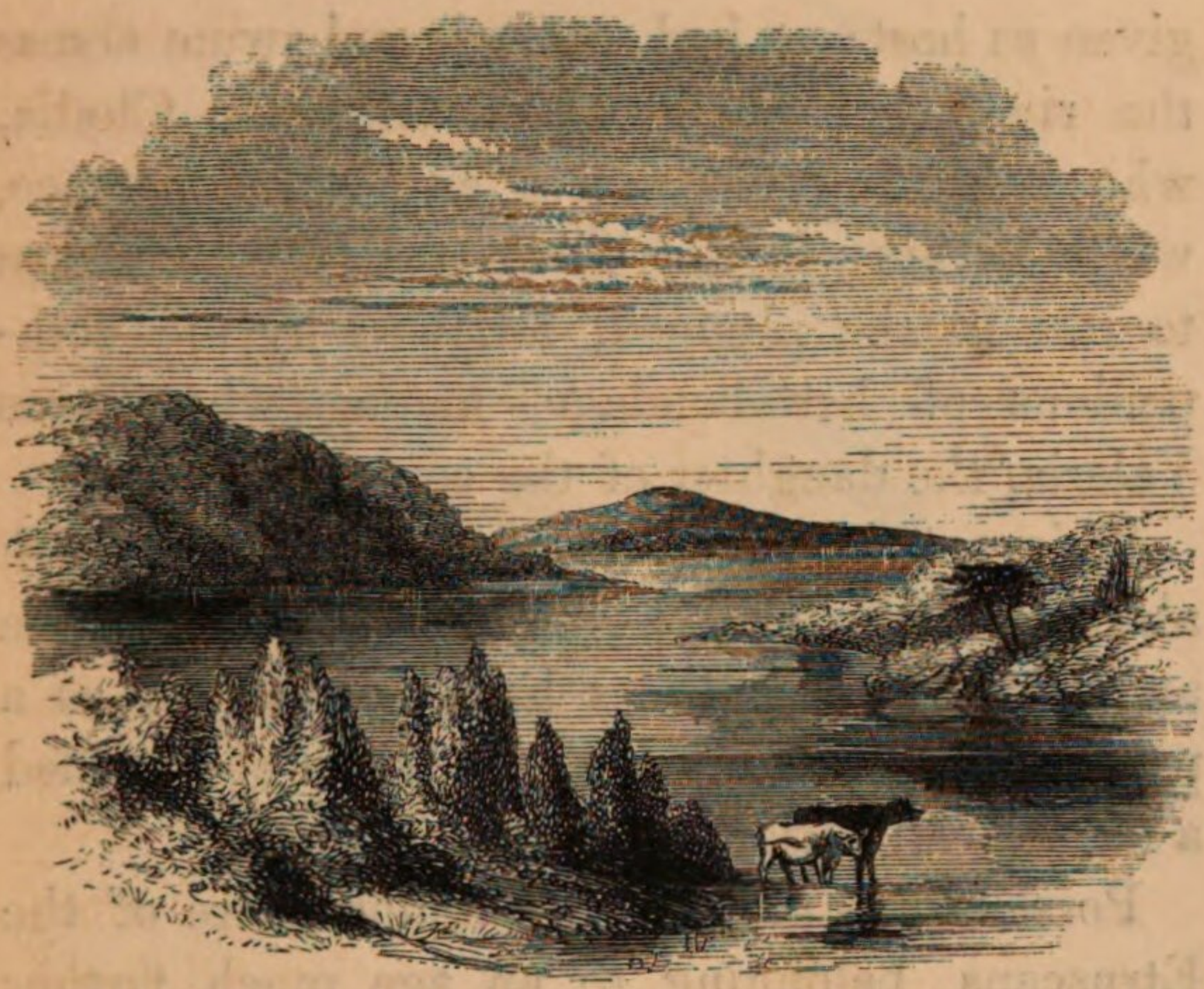
Mutius, mistaking the secretary for the king himself, leaped upon the tribunal, and with one stroke of his poignard laid the former dead at his feet.

He attempted to escape, but was seized and brought into the presence of the king.

"Who art thou, and whence camest thou?" asked Porsena.

Mutius, with a look more adapted to strike terror than to indicate fear, replied: "I am a Roman, and capable of attempting whatever man can perform, and of enduring all that man can endure."

The king, amazed at his answer, was yet more astonished on beholding the youth thrust his hand into a fire that was burning on an altar that stood close by, and there hold it steadily in the flame without betraying the least symptom of pain. The anger of Porsena was changed into admiration; he granted life and liberty to the brave Mutius, and restored the dagger with which he had designed to stab him. Mutius had now lost the use of his right hand, and received it with the left. He had thence the name of *Scævola*, or "left-handed."



The Tiber.

CLŒLIA AND THE HOSTAGES.

YEAR OF ROME, 246.

A TRUCE was made with the Romans, and the fort of the Janiculum was proposed to be given up to them, upon the performance of certain conditions. To ensure this, ten maidens and as many youths were delivered to the Etrurians. The Romans would not accede to the restoration of Tarquin's estates, and desired that the cause should be heard before Porsena.

Scarcely had the deputies begun to open the affair, when news was brought that the women

given as hostages had escaped, and swum across the river, led on by the courageous Clœlia, who beholding her native city at a distance, while bathing in the Tiber, resolved to return to it. In she plunged, followed by the companions of her bondage, among whom was Valeria, the daughter of the consul.

This act on the part of the hostages much alarmed the consuls; but Porsena, whom the annalists of those times have represented as a prince of singular generosity, only entertained a higher estimation of Roman bravery.

Porsena was probably a fabulous hero of the Etruscans, belonging to an age much farther back than any of which there are historical records.

The Roman legends have mingled his name with the banishment of the Tarquins; the popular histories of Rome relate the heroic deeds as facts; but it is the opinion of Niebuhr, the acute investigator of early Roman history, that little dependence can be placed upon them.

THE PLEBEIANS ON MOUNT SACER.

YEAR OF ROME, 256.

THE Romans were at first all husbandmen and soldiers; the greatest men in the state inured their children to a life of labour, to render them robust and capable of sustaining the fatigues of war. Each citizen had at first two acres of land; but frequent acquisitions were made in wars with the adjoining states, and one half of these lands was sold to pay the expenses of the war, and the remainder was added to the public domain, which was afterwards either given, or let at a low rate, to the poorer citizens. But

the patricians, who considered themselves as the chiefs under the republican government, began to appropriate these conquered lands, under various pretences, to their own use. The state lost its revenue, and the soldier his subsistence and his reward. The poor were forced to borrow money of the rich; those who had land were obliged to pledge their small estates, when the harvest fell short, in order to obtain the means of providing food. In default of payment, the law allowed the creditor to seize the debtor, take him to his own house, and treat him as a slave.

A war ensued with the Latins, but the men were not disposed to fight in defence of those who ill-treated them. Promises were made by the senate that induced the troops to assemble, and the Latin war terminated successfully.

Scarcely was it ended, when the civil dissensions were renewed with greater violence. The news of the disturbances at Rome having reached the Volsci, they resolved to besiege the city; judging it to be a favourable opportunity to subdue a people whom they hated. The Roman youth, being summoned, as usual, to enlist for the service of the state, refused to appear. Servitius the consul, although more popular than his colleague, was unable to raise an army.

Deceived by the promises and assurances of the senate and the consul, together with the dictator, who now governed with full authority, the ill-used plebeians followed their leaders against the Sabines and the Volsci, over whom they gained a complete victory. But they were detained under pretence that the war was not finished; nor could the soldiers quit their ensigns without leave, after taking an oath not to desert them. Perceiving the artifice, they snatched up the ensigns, marched off, and retired to a hill three miles from Rome, near the river Anio, afterwards called *Mons Sacer*. There they encamped quietly, attempting neither violence nor disorder, and observing exact discipline.

MENENIUS ADDRESSING THE PLEBEIANS.

After several attempts to reconcile and pacify the seceders without effect, Menenius Agrippa went to them with Lartius. The latter only enraged the people, by telling them that it was unjust to extort by force of arms an abolition of debts, when they might obtain it by fair means; nor should they complain of the senate as refusing their demands; they ought rather to

blame those who threw obstacles in the way of the senate's good intentions.

Menenius then made a sign that he would speak, and, as he was known to be a friend of the people, silence was obtained. He assured them, that it was resolved to remit all debts to insolvents, to give liberty to all debtors, and

that new regulations concerning debts should be made by the people and the senate together. To convince them that subordination in the state was needful, that both high and low were equally useful, he employed the celebrated fable of the different members of the human body which

formed a conspiracy against the stomach, because this alone, without working, enjoyed the benefit of the others' labours. He then lamented the miseries that must fall upon his fellow citizens, and the calamities of his country—till the people, quite subdued, called upon him to lead them back to Rome.

One of the leaders, less disposed to trust those in power, observed in reply, that truly they might be thankful to the senate for the favour shown at present, but he was also anxious for the future; fearing that the senate would be revenged upon them unless means were taken to rescue their rights and liberties.

Menenius asked "what further security they could need than that already afforded by the laws and constitution?" "Grant us the privilege of annually creating out of the body of the plebeians some magistrates who shall have no other power than that of protecting the people when injustice or violence is done them, and of defending their public and private rights."

The deputies, much surprised at the demand, conferred together. Menenius then told the people that the thing asked for was very extraordinary, but that he would remain in the camp while his colleague went to report the matter to the senate. The majority were in-

clined to peace; a decree was made to permit the creation of new magistrates, who were named *Tribunes of the People.* They were five in number. The leaders of this powerful body were chosen immediately. One of them, who had assumed the name of Brutus, not yet satisfied, convened the people, and advised them to make a law before they departed, declaring the persons of the tribunes sacred. After this was done, they erected an altar to Jupiter the Terrible on the hill where they had encamped, consecrated this place of their retreat, and returned home, led by their tribunes and the deputies of the senate.

CORIOLANUS.

YEAR OF ROME, 260.

In the war which the Romans shortly after undertook against the Volsci, a young patrician, named Marcius, became conspicuous for his bravery. At the siege of the city Corioli, the troops ordered to scale the walls being repulsed, Marcius rallied them, led on the second attack, and made himself master of the place.

On receiving his share of the spoil, he returned all but a fine horse, and accepted only one captive, who was an old friend of his family,

to whom he gave his liberty. The consul bestowed on him the surname of *Coriolanus*, in honour of his conquest of Corioli.

During the recent troubles, agriculture had been neglected; the fields were neither ploughed nor sown, and the winter arrived before supplies were procured for the famishing people, who were led by the influence of their tribunes to believe that the dearness of provisions was brought about by the patricians, in revenge for the defeat they had lately suffered from the people; and that, having plenty of money to buy corn for themselves, they were regardless of the poor and destitute.

Coriolanus was much admired for his warlike abilities, but his haughty behaviour gave great offence to the plebeians. Their rejection of him as consul exasperated him exceedingly; and in a debate in the senate, on the question, whether the corn brought to Rome from foreign countries should be given or sold, he strenuously advised that the people should purchase it, although some portion of the supply had come as a gift. This course was highly displeasing to the commonalty: in their fury they would have torn Coriolanus to pieces, had not the tribunes summoned him to take his trial. Historians represent him as making a powerful appeal, and bringing as witnesses the many persons whose

lives he had rescued in time of war. He was banished by a majority of the votes, and retired to Antium, a maritime town of the Volsci, whose king received the exile cordially.

The Volsci made Coriolanus their general. He attacked and captured many towns: and at length advanced towards Rome itself, and pitched his camp within a few miles of the city. Here he dictated the terms upon which the Romans might purchase a cessation of hostilities. Several deputations came before him. The senators he repulsed with threats, demanding of them unqualified submission. The second deputation, consisting of the priests and augurs in their robes, was equally unsuccessful. On the third day the noblest matrons, led by Veturia, the mother of the inflexible general, with his wife, Volumnia, leading his little children, came to his tent. Veturia now set forth the object of her embassy; and Coriolanus desired the presence of the Volscian officers, that they might hear what passed at this interview. To Veturia's entreaties he replied, that the Volsci had honoured and trusted him; that he had a place in their senate, and he could not betray the interests of a people who had treated him so honourably; and that he had also invoked the gods to be witnesses of his good faith to them. He only desired that his family would

forsake Rome, and live with him among the Volsci. Veturia's representations and entreaties finally prevailed. She threw herself

at the feet of her son, over whom she had always possessed much influence. Coriolanus, struck with surprise at the action, hastily raised her, exclaiming, "Ah! mother, what is it you do?" then, in a low voice, he added, "Rome is saved, but your son is lost." He withdrew the forces from Rome. Coriolanus lived to a great age among the Volsci; and, according to one of the oldest Latin historians, was often heard to say, "that exile, always grievous, was most so in old age."

CINCINNATUS.

YEAR OF ROME, 297.

LITTLE is known of this celebrated Roman, until he became involved in difficulties by the conduct of his son Cæso, who had opposed the tribunes in the execution of their functions, and had committed many other irregularities. He was to be tried for ill-treating an old tribune; but sureties being procured and bound for his appearance, he was allowed to be at liberty. Regardless of those who were answerable for his appearance, he went into voluntary exile: and some writers assert, that the sum for which

his sureties were bound was demanded of his father. In order to answer this claim, Cincinnatus was forced to sell his estates, and retire to a small farm on the banks of the Tiber, where he cultivated the ground with his own hands. Being chosen consul, the messengers found him busied in the labours of the field. He expressed no pleasure at the unexpected honour, but regretted that he had been called from his rural pursuits. By his resolute proceedings, he succeeded in restoring some degree of tranquillity in the city; but, at the close of his year of office, he refused to be again elected to the consulship, and retired to his farm.

Some time after, Cincinnatus was appointed *Dictator*, in consequence of the disasters of war, in which the Romans had engaged with the Volsci and the Æqui. The dictator was commonly invested with supreme power to retrieve the affairs of the republic. The appointment of such an officer was a frequent expedient among the Romans.

Cincinnatus was conducted to the city amid the shouts of the people; he marched immediately against the Æqui, gained a complete victory over them, entered Rome in triumph, and resigned the office of Dictator sixteen days after he had received it.

At eighty years of age he was again chosen dictator. The solicitations of the consuls and the senate induced him to undertake the duties of the office, when repose and quiet were far more congenial to his years and inclinations. His probity and virtue, his patriotism and military success, gained this noble Roman universal admiration.

THE DECEMVIRI AND THE LAWS OF THE TWELVE TABLES.

YEAR OF ROME, 301.

SOME time after the retirement of Cincinnatus the senate resolved to despatch deputies to Athens, that they might study the laws and institutions of the Grecian states, in order to compile a code of laws for the Roman people, suited to the state of the republic.

At this period the plague ravaged nearly the whole of Italy. At Rome, the disease carried off vast numbers, of every rank and condition. To escape the pestilence, the people dispersed over the country, and the city was almost deserted. Fears were entertained that the neighbouring states would take advantage of

the desolation; but a similar infliction rendered them unable to undertake any warlike expedition. Earthquakes, an eruption of Mount Ætna, drought, and famine, took place during several years.

Ten persons chosen from the body of the senate were now appointed to govern. They were called *Decemviri.* They were to be invested with authority for one year. From their decisions there could be no appeal. The consuls and other magistrates were suspended during their government. Only one of the ten exercised sovereign power at a time; they succeeded each other daily, while the remaining nine scarcely differed from private persons. The people were satisfied with the fair and impartial exercise of their power, and prayed the gods for a continuance of a government so full of moderation. To these Decemviri was entrusted the formation of a code of laws extracted from those of Greece, on the return of the embassy. These laws were afterwards laid before the senate and the people for their consideration and approval. They were the celebrated laws of the *Ten Tables;* and they were engraved upon brass, and set up to public view in the Forum. Two other Tables being wanted to complete the code, Decemviri were again

created to compile them. The whole bore the name of "The *Twelve Tables*." Among these laws were the following:—

"Let a father have a power of life and death over his legitimate children, and let him sell them when he pleases.

"Let not a son be obliged to maintain his father if in want, who has not taught him a trade; otherwise, let all sons be obliged to relieve their fathers.

"Let every false witness be thrown headlong from the Capitol.

"Let all parricides be thrown into the river tied up in a leather bag.

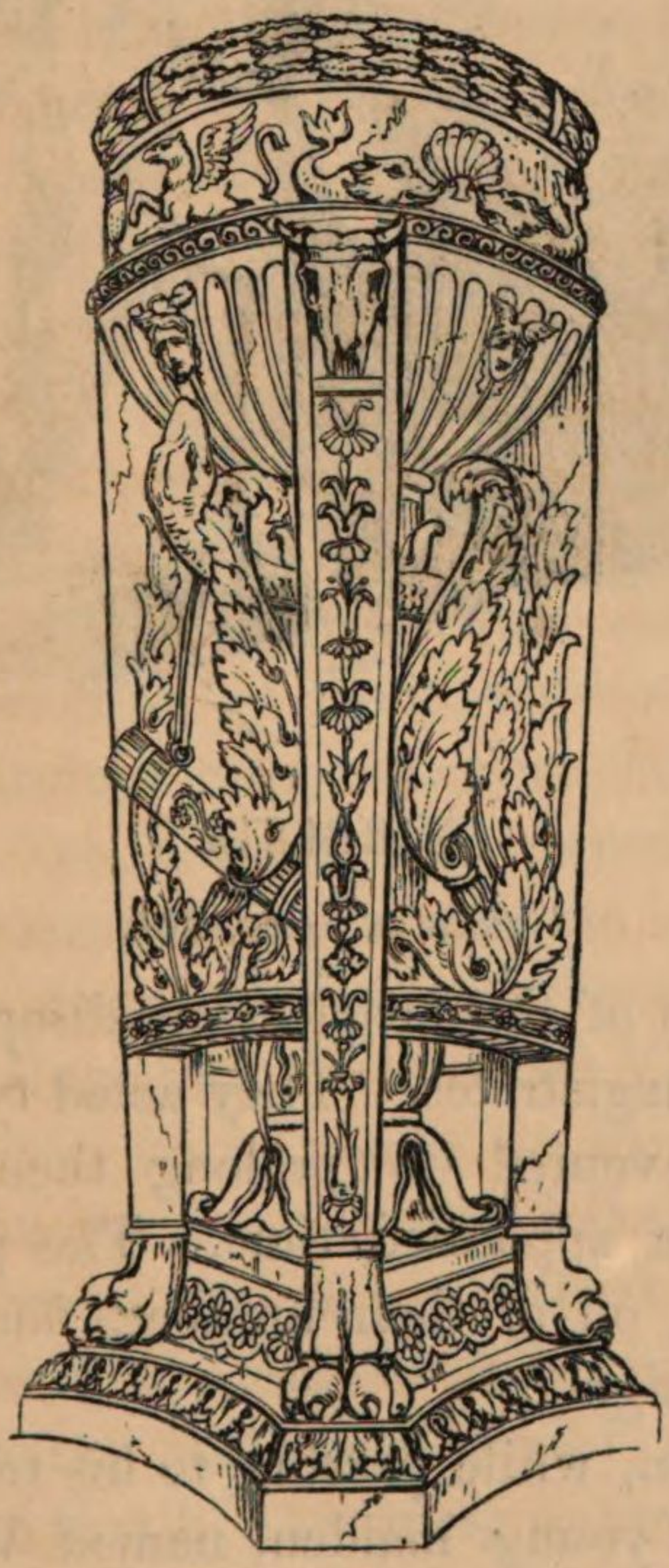
"If a debtor refuses to pay a debt, and can find no security, his creditor may carry him home, put irons on his feet, or tie him by the neck. The iron must not weigh more than fifteen pounds. The creditor may keep the debtor sixty days; if in that time he does not pay him, let the creditor bring him out before the people on three market days, and proclaim the sum of which he has been defrauded.

"It shall be a capital crime for a judge or an arbitrator to take money for passing judgment.

"Let no dead body be interred or burned within the city.

"Let all persons come with purity and piety to the assemblies of religion.

"It shall not be lawful for the patricians to intermarry with the plebeians."



Tripod.

VIRGINIA.

YEAR OF ROME, 304.

THE hopes of the people were disappointed by the new magistrates. They acted tyrannically, and endeavoured to prolong their dominion beyond the appointed time. The proceedings of Appius, on of their number, finally caused them to resign.

This man, while passing to his tribunal, had observed a young maiden, named Virginia, of great beauty and modesty of demeanour, studying

in the public schools established in the Forum, whither she went daily, attended by her nurse, having lost her mother. Her father, Virginius, was a centurion in the army; and was, at that time, in the camp. Appius became enamoured, and, having learned who the maiden was, would have married her; but his wife was living; and, by the law recently established, no patrician could take a plebeian wife. Resolved to accomplish his design, he first attempted to corrupt Virginia's attendant; but the faithful nurse only kept a more watchful guard over her charge. Thus baffled, Appius, assisted by one of his profligate adherents, devised a scheme for getting the maiden into his power. This abettor of his scheme, Claudius by name, entered the school where Virginia was, accompanied by other creatures like himself, and forced her away under pretence that she was the daughter of one of his female slaves, and, by law, his property; adding, that the wife of Virginius had imposed upon him, having no children of her own. Claudius was dragging her away, bathed in tears, when the people, struck with pity, flocked about her, and compelled him to set her free. Finding that force would not succeed, he declared that he was going to proceed according to law, and would take the damsel to the

tribunal, where Appius was placed designedly, the multitude following them closely. The friends and relations of Virginia hastened to her; and then Icilius, whom she was about to marry, burst into the assembly, and a scene of abuse and threatenings ensued. Appius, fearing a tumult—for the people had attacked the lictors, who were forcing away Virginia—declared himself willing to wait till the next day for the return of Virginius. He took bail of Icilius and the relations of the unfortunate maiden, but privately sent to his colleagues in the army to arrest her father upon some pretence; but, upon the first notice of his daughter's peril, her friends had apprized him of these proceedings.

Next morning Virginius appeared in the Forum, leading his daughter, followed by her relatives and a great many ladies of the city. Appius, enraged on hearing that Virginius was arrived, collected his dependents, and went to the tribunal. Claudius brought forward a slave, who, instigated by her master, declared that she had sold Virginia to the wife of Virginius. The incensed parent in vain urged well-known facts, and offered the most undeniable testimony, in disproof of those allegations. Appius pronounced Claudius to be the lawful owner of the maiden.

The multitude uttered a loud cry of indignation, and appeared ready to oppose the execution of the decree; but, terrified by menaces, they retreated, and left the miserable Virginia the prey of injustice. Her father resolved upon the remaining remedy. He asked permission to question the nurse, in his daughter's presence, on some points that might set the matter right. The request was granted. Virginius drew his child near to some shops on one side of the Forum, and pierced with grief, he took her, half dead, in his arms, seized a butcher's knife that lay near, exclaiming, "My dear daughter, this is the only way to save thy honour and thy liberty." He then plunged the knife into her heart, and withdrawing it, turned towards the tribunal, and, with a furious voice, uttered these words: "By this blood, Appius, I devote thy head to the infernal gods!"

Virginius escaped to the camp, told the horrible tale, and roused the army against the Decemvirs. They were obliged to give way to the incensed people. Consuls were again appointed with the tribunes, as under the former arrangements of the government.

CAMILLUS.

YEAR OF ROME, 357.

THE siege of Veii, the most important city of Etruria, had long occupied the Romans, when a sudden and unexpected attack upon the army that was encamped before the place terrified the troops, who were with difficulty prevented from disbanding. In this state of affairs recourse was had to a dictator; and Camillus was

chosen to fill the office. A new commander renewed the courage of the soldiers; the people were eager to enlist under the banner of a leader who had always been successful.

As the besieged Veians defended themselves with no less bravery after the arrival of Camillus before the town, that general resolved to attempt its capture by opening a passage underground, by mining, and thus enter the very citadel of the place. His design being completed, he caused an assault to be made on all sides of the city. The citizens hastened to the ramparts, astonished at this sudden and furious attack of the Romans, who had been quite still for several days. Meanwhile the troops appointed to fill the mine entered the citadel, rising up into the temple of Juno, which stood there, divided themselves into several parties, and spread over the city. The gates were speedily broken down, and the whole Roman army rushed in, putting every one to death who did not surrender. The spoil obtained from the capture of Veii was very great. The siege had lasted for ten years.

Camillus, notwithstanding his important services to the state, experienced ill treatment from the ungrateful Romans. He was accused by one of the tribunes of having robbed the

people of some riches taken from Veii, and was summoned before an assembly to answer the charge. He chose rather to quit Rome, than undergo a condemnation. It is recorded, that having paused at the gate of the city, he turned toward the Capitol, and entreated the gods that his ungrateful countrymen might soon have cause to repent having repaid his services by such an outrage. By some authors his condemnation is deemed just, inasmuch as the brazen gates of Veii were found in his house.

ROME TAKEN BY THE GAULS.

YEAR OF ROME, 363.

GALLIA, or Gaul, was divided into three parts. Gallia Belgica extended from the British sea to the Seine; Gallia Celtica comprehended all the country between the Seine and the Garonne; and Gallia Aquitanica contained the tract from the Garonne to the Pyrenees and the western ocean.

Several of the Celtic nations had made their way into Italy previous to the advance of Brennus with the Senones to attack the Romans. The origin of the war with the Gallic chief and his followers is thus related:—

Clusium, a town in Etruria, being besieged by the Gauls, who had passed the Alps, and possessed themselves of the country about Ravenna, the people sent to entreat the aid of the Romans against their enemies. The senate did not grant the request, but sent ambassadors to admonish the Gauls to forbear hostilities against the Clusians, from whom they had received no injury. The three ambassadors, having delivered their message in full council, summoned to give them audience, Brennus gave the following haughty reply:—

"The Clusians have done us great injury; they have more land than they can cultivate, yet refuse us part of it, who are strangers and poor. The most ancient law is, that the weak should yield to the strong, and that the brave be lords of the world."

In their wrath at this answer the ambassadors forgot their duty, which forbade them to take any part in the contest, and put themselves at the head of the Clusians. One of them killed a chief of the Gallic army. While he was taking the armour of the chief, Brennus recognised the ambassador, and sounded a retreat from Clusium. Rome was now his object; but his officers persuaded him to require the person to be delivered up to him, who had thus

violated the law of nations. The priests and heralds, and even the senate, thought the demand was just; but the father of the three ambassadors (for they were brothers) prevailed, and the herald was sent back without the satisfaction required.

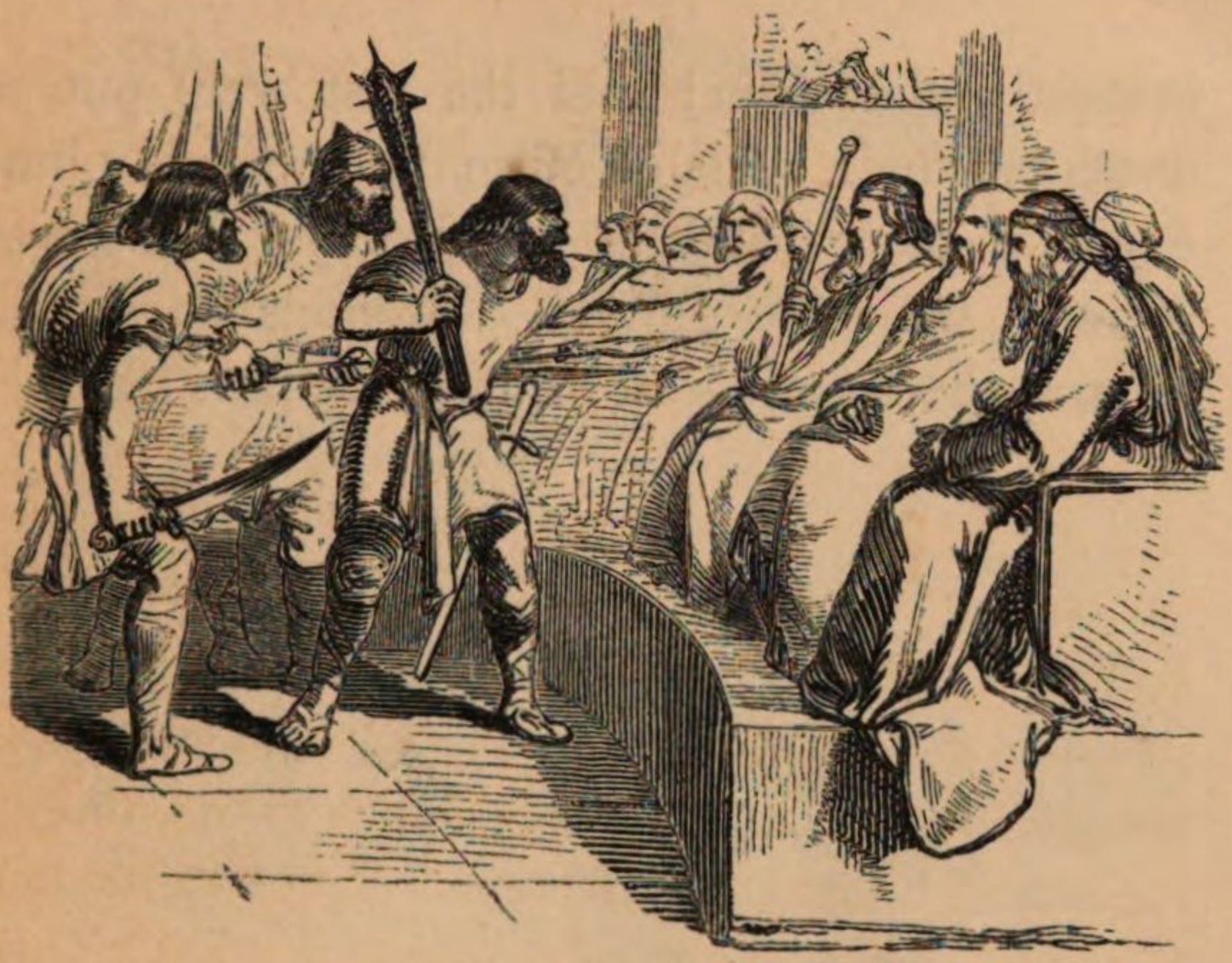
BRENNUS MARCHES FOR ROME.

THE history of the taking of Rome by the Gauls is acknowledged to be mingled with fictions by the old historians. The following events are among those recorded :—

On receiving the news that the enemy was approaching, the Romans hastily levied a large body of troops, unwisely giving the command to young and inexperienced generals. A battle took place near the junction of the river Allia with the Tiber, about eleven miles from Rome. Without the usual precautions, the Romans made an immediate attack; but a panic having

seized part of the army, the main body fled. Some threw themselves into the river, and were drowned in attempting to cross it; numbers took refuge in Veii; the rest hastened to Rome, and, leaving the gates open, fled into the citadel.

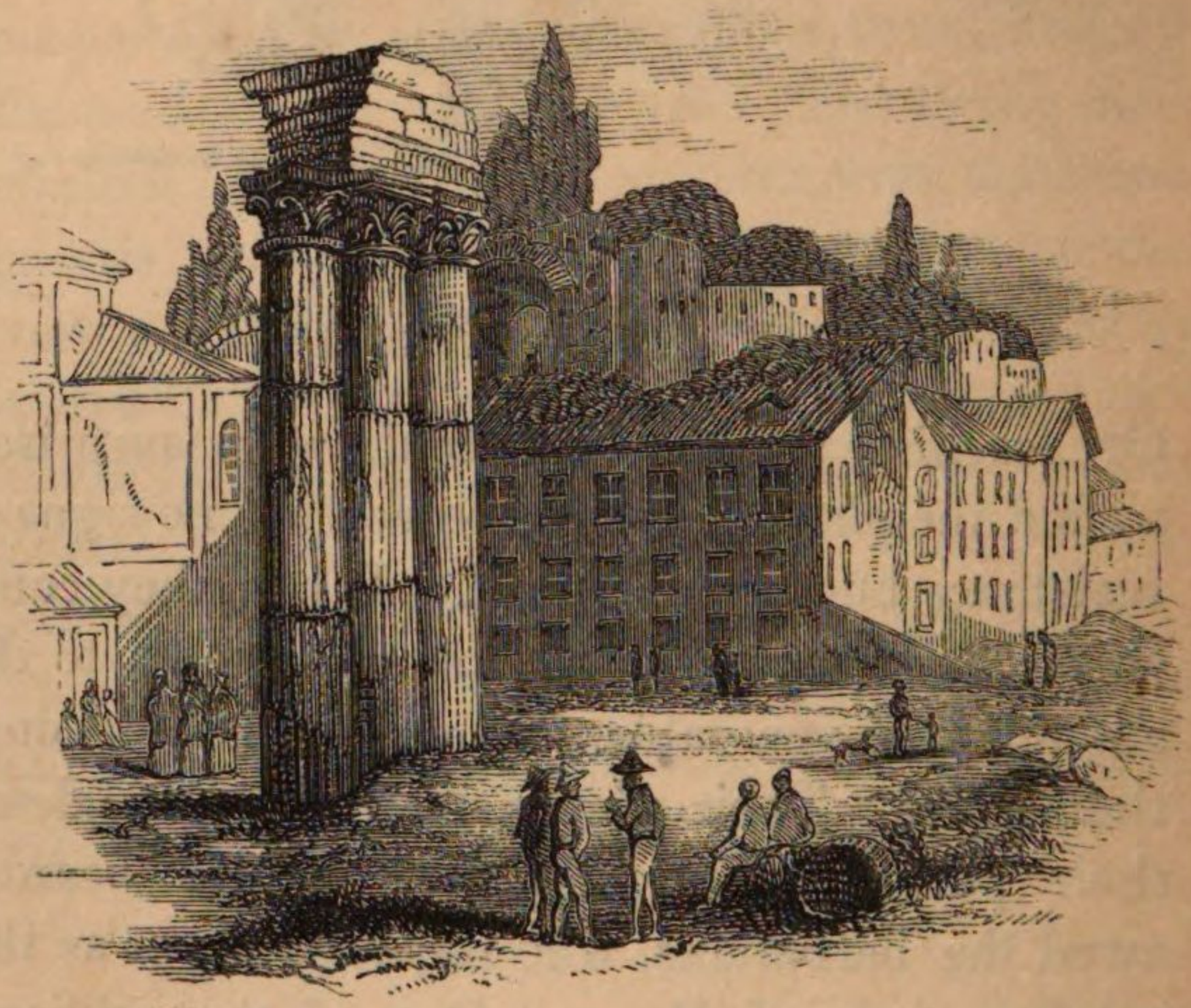
The Gauls spent some days in feasting and dividing the spoil. Had they followed the Roman fugitives closely, not even the citadel would have been safe. The delay afforded the people time to carry in provisions, arms, and all the needful means of defence. The strong and efficient portion of the inhabitants were stationed in this place, the rest were dispersed over the country. The aged senators and generals, being incapable of assisting in the defence of their country, are said to have withdrawn to the Forum, clothed in their robes of office, determined to devote themselves to its welfare. This was deemed by all a high proof of religion and virtue, and was believed to have brought confusion and destruction upon the enemy.



THE GAULS AT ROME.

On reaching the city, the Gauls were surprised to find the place deserted; perceiving no signs of resistance but at the citadel. When they came to the Forum their attention was drawn to the assembly of venerable persons who had devoted themselves. Their silence, their air of grandeur, their purple robes, and long white beards, awed the barbarians, who regarded them as the tutelary gods of Rome. One of the soldiers, however, attempted to stroke the beard of a senator, who, indignant at the freedom, struck the offender with his ivory staff. The Gaul

instantly slew him; and the rest were put to death on their seats of office. A general plunder took place; and in a few days Rome was levelled with the ground. Brennus encamped around the citadel, resolved to blockade it.



Remains of the Roman Forum.

CAMILLUS FORCES THE GAULS TO RETREAT.

During these events the banished general, Camillus, was at Ardea, watching for every opportunity of serving his country in her calamity. Having learned that the Gauls preserved neither order nor discipline in their marches to obtain provisions in the adjacent country, he assembled a force, and fell upon them in the night, making a great slaughter. The soldiers at Veii, now very numerous, entreated, by their deputies, that Camillus would lead them against the Gauls; but he chose, first, to have the consent of the senate in the citadel. This was no easy matter, as it was closely besieged. A Roman

youth undertook to carry the message of Camillus to the senate. Having clothed himself in a light habit, and being provided with cork, he threw himself into the Tiber. The stream carried him to the foot of the Capitoline hill, at a very steep part, where the Gauls had no sentinels. With much difficulty he climbed the precipice, made himself known to the guard, and was conducted to the magistrates.

THE CITADEL SAVED BY THE GEESE.

THE senate lost not much time in debate. Camillus, by public act, was declared to be recalled from banishment; and the youth returned to Veii unmolested, bearing the decree.

According to the popular narrative, the Gauls observed footsteps on the side of the hill, and an attempt was made by Brennus to scale the side, as the Roman had done. Accordingly, a few of the most courageous ascended to the base of the wall undiscovered; but the well-known watchfulness of some geese, that belonged to the temple of Juno (to whom they were sacred), saved the Capitol. The poor birds, made more watchful by their hunger, awakened the men who lay near. A Roman hastened to the wall,

and found that two Gauls had mounted it. They were both struck, and hurled down the rampart. The sentinel was punished; and the geese, ever after, were held in due honour.

Famine now greatly prevailed in the citadel: and Camillus having made himself master of all the roads, the Gauls suffered similar distress. Brennus proposed a parley; and, after a siege of seven months, offered to depart, on the Romans paying a certain ransom. A thousand pounds weight of gold was agreed upon. The Gauls brought false weights; and upon an objection being offered, Brennus threw his sword into the scale, saying, "Woe to the vanquished!"

Suddenly Camillus appeared with his forces at the place of conference. He ordered the gold to be taken away, and commanded the Gauls to depart, saying, "It is with iron, not with gold, that the Romans are used to defend their country." Brennus vainly represented that the treaty was absolutely concluded. Camillus replied that he was dictator, and that no treaty could be valid without his approbation.

A battle ensued, in which Camillus was the victor, and he returned in triumph to the city, hailed as a second Romulus, the father of his country. Such is the popular history.

Polybius simply states, that after the Gauls had taken possession of Rome, they were induced to return home in consequence of an inroad into their country by the Veneti.

Rome was rebuilt, but in a manner so void of plan and regularity, that the city exhibited less uniformity than before.

THE ROMAN ARMY IN THE CAUDINE FORKS.

YEAR OF ROME, 432.

WARS with the neighbouring states, and dissensions among themselves, fully occupied the Romans for many years after the retreat of the Gauls. They were now engaged in a furious war with the Samnites.

These people had sued for peace; but the Romans, rendered haughty by success, rejected

the petition, and the Samnites were forced to continue the war.

Having chosen an able general named Pontius, he exhorted them not to fear a people who refused peace upon reasonable terms. He led the troops near to Caudium, a small town in Samnium, and, upon the approach of the consul, spread a report that the Samnite army was besieging Luceria, in the territory of Apulia. The stratagem succeeded. The Roman general resolved to march and relieve Luceria, choosing the shortest way, which lay through two defiles called the *Caudine Forks.* When the Roman army had passed the first defile, which was deep and narrow, running through a hollow rock, they issued into a large marshy meadow. On reaching the second pass, at the end of this spot, they found the entrance entirely barred with large stones and trees laid across, and then beheld great numbers of the enemy on the tops of the surrounding mountains. The consul instantly retreated, intending to repass the defile by which he had entered. To the utter dismay of the army, they found that it was already blocked up. Thus shut in, they stood in silence till the consul's tent was pitched, and preparations were made for fortifications, amid the scoffs of the enemy on the heights.

Night came on, and both the officers and the troops passed the hours of rest in discoursing on their perilous situation.

Meantime the Samnites could not decide what they should do with the enemy, who was completely at their mercy. At length they sent to consult the father of the general, an old man who was esteemed an oracle. He advised them not to do the least harm to the Romans, but to leave a free passage for them home. This counsel being rejected, and messengers being sent again for instructions, the general was recommended not to spare the life of a single Roman: thus indicating that there was no medium between treating the enemy in the most lenient manner, and utterly destroying them.

The Romans sent to desire a truce, or to offer a battle. The Samnites replied, "That the victory was already gained." The victors also chose a middle course. They resolved to spare the lives of their enemies, but gave them to understand that not a man of the Roman legions should escape, till all the troops and their leaders had passed under the yoke disarmed. They also required that the Roman forces should be withdrawn from Samnium, and the cities delivered up which had been occupied by their colonies.

The consuls were dismayed, and unwilling to accept an escape upon terms so shameful and disgraceful to Roman valour. An officer of rank, after giving many reasons for yielding to the terms of the Samnites, observed that the strength of Rome, her legions, lay in that valley; that by devoting themselves to death, they left Rome defenceless, inhabited only by a weak, unarmed multitude, incapable of much resistance. "For the sake of Rome," said he, "let us not hesitate to submit to the indignity."

The advice was followed; and the army, having escaped from their perilous situation, withdrew to Capua, leaving six hundred knights as hostages, till the senate of Rome should have been informed of the terms which the consuls would only promise to lay before them.

Some time after, the Romans rescued their hostages, and retaliated the ignominy which they had experienced at the "Caudine Forks."

FABRICIUS AND PYRRHUS.

YEAR OF ROME, 475.

THE Tarentines, a people of the eastern part of Italy, attempted to stir up the surrounding states to make war upon the Romans, and sought the aid of Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, who was renowned for his warlike exploits, and who readily undertook to deliver the Italians from the power of the republic.

The king brought with him to Tarentum a large force, and twenty elephants trained for war. A severe conflict took place on the banks

of the river Siris. A report having been spread that Pyrrhus was slain, the Romans filled the air with shouts of victory; but the king hurried to show himself to the troops, and the combat was renewed. Pyrrhus now brought his elephants into action. The Roman cavalry was put to rout by these huge animals, whose unusual form and terrifying noise so frightened the horses, that the whole army fled in dismay, leaving their camp behind.

The Romans soon assembled their legions again, and the consul offered battle. Pyrrhus drew up his army, and ordered the conductor of the elephants to force them to utter their strange and dreadful bellowings. But this new species of menace was answered by so universal a shout from the Romans, that the king, finding his soldiers dismayed, declined an engagement, pretending, that the omens were not favourable.

Pyrrhus remained at Tarentum, fully convinced of the strength and bravery of the Romans. He heard with joy that an embassy was coming to treat with him for the release of the Roman prisoners. One of the persons chosen was Fabricius, a man held in the highest esteem for his virtue and bravery; he was likewise very poor.

Pyrrhus assembled his council, and proposed to negotiate a peace; and having given audience to the ambassadors, he drew Fabricius aside, and addressed him, saying that he had been informed of his merit and his poverty; that he thought a prince could not employ wealth to a more noble purpose than by raising the fortune of an indigent great man; and that he would bestow riches upon him sufficient to put him upon an equality with the most wealthy of the Roman nobles. He assured him that he only desired his aid in effecting a treaty of peace with Rome.

"When the peace is made," continued the king, "come and assist me with your counsels; I will undertake nothing without your advice; you shall be my chief minister, my general, and shall share with me in all that I possess."

The noble Fabricius replied, "My whole estate consists of a house of small size, and a little plot of ground, which, by my own labour, I cause to produce sufficient for my support. I have all that nature requires, and I do not desire luxuries. My country places me on a level with the richest. I have the command of armies—I am entrusted with negotiations—I officiate in the highest offices of religion. The Roman people honour me for the poverty which

you think a disgrace; for they know the various means I have had of enriching myself without fear of censure; and if I have anything to complain of, it is only of the excess of their applause."

Pyrrhus perceived by this answer, that his offers were rejected, and urged him no further.

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FABRICIUS AND THE PHYSICIAN.

It was in vain for Pyrrhus to seek peace with the Romans. They resolutely refused to enter into any treaty with him while he continued in Italy. The king, therefore, prepared for war.

While the two armies were watching the proceedings of each other, Fabricius, then consul, received a letter from Nicias, the king's chief physician, offering to destroy him by poison; and thus put an end to the war without further hazard to the Romans, provided he

should receive a reward proportioned to his great service.

Fabricius, detesting the baseness of the physician, and finding his colleagues of the same opinion, immediately sent a letter to Pyrrhus, informing him of his danger. "We do not this for your own sake," said he, "or to make our court to you, but to avoid the calumny which might fall upon us by your death, as if, for want of strength or courage to overcome you, we had recourse to treachery."

On reading this letter, the king exclaimed, "This is that Fabricius, whom it is more difficult to divert from the way of justice and honour than to turn the sun from his course!" In acknowledgment of the benefit he set all the Roman prisoners free without ransom. Rome, however, would not accept a present from an enemy, and was too generous to receive a reward for not consenting to so execrable a deed; a return, therefore, was made of an equal number of Samnite and Tarentine prisoners, who were released and sent to Pyrrhus.

King Pyrrhus afterwards passed over into Sicily, where he was well received, his assistance having been sought against the Carthaginians. He withdrew his army thence, in consequence of some offence that he had given the Sicilians,

and repaired again to Italy. He afterwards abandoned that country, and carried his arms against Greece.

Pyrrhus lost his life while fighting in the streets of Argos. A young soldier, having wounded him, he was on the point of slaying the Greek; but his mother, beholding her son's danger from the top of a house, took up a large tile, and threw it upon the king, who fell lifeless to the ground; a Macedonian then severed his head from his body.

Historians estimate King Pyrrhus as superior to the other monarchs of the time: while they were surrounded by worthless flatterers, Pyrrhus had such real friends as few kings have ever possessed.

YEAR OF ROME, 481.

THE Sabines, Volsci, Campanians, and Etrurians, all ancient enemies of Rome, were now subdued; and, together with other states more recently conquered, formed one republic, of which Rome was the capital.

Until this period the Romans had used only pieces of brass as money, stamped with the figure of a ram, a boar, or a bull; they were

too poor to coin silver money. But their conquest of Samnium, and the possession of Tarentum, increased the riches of the state. A great quantity of silver in bars was found among the treasures; and the consuls deemed it advisable to coin the silver, and use it as money in commerce. The place appointed for a mint was the temple of Juno Moneta, whence the word *money* is derived.

THE FIRST PUNIC, OR CARTHAGINIAN WAR.

YEAR OF ROME, 489.

THE Carthaginians were a colony from Tyre, a celebrated city, on the coast of the Mediterranean sea. Dido, a conspicuous character in the Æneid of Virgil, is considered the founder of Carthage. Her brother, Pygmalion, king of Tyre, having put her husband Acerbas, or Sichæus, to death, that he might obtain his immense riches, Dido secreted them, and succeeded in her attempt to escape by sea, with numerous friends and followers. They landed on the coast of Africa, and, having purchased a portion of land, built a fortress or citadel. The city soon became flourishing, and was named Carthage,

a word signifying *New City* in the Phœnician language.

They were a commercial people, powerful by sea, and carried on an extensive trade with other nations. They gained possession of Sardinia and the adjacent isles, part of Sicily and Spain, and a large extent of country in Africa. With this new rival Rome was now about to contend.

Their mode of worship was gloomy and cruel; they sacrificed the children of the noblest families to propitiate their tutelary god Moloch, or Saturn. Their punishments were barbarous, crucifixion being the most common mode of putting the criminal to death.

The origin of the First Punic War was the aid given by the Romans to the Mamertines, a people of Sicily, who had sent for aid against Hiero king of Syracuse, and the Carthaginians. The senate at first refused to take part with them against their own allies; neither did the Mamertines merit such assistance. But the consuls brought the subject before the people, and by appealing to their jealousy of the Carthaginian power, and reminding them of the gain to be made by a contest in the fertile country of Sicily, they prevailed upon them to take up the cause of the Mamertines.

During this war the Romans took the city of

Agrigentum after a long siege; but they now began to find their operations greatly embarrassed by the superiority of the Carthaginians by sea. They resolved, therefore, to form a large fleet. Hitherto their ships had been small and few in number: their fleet in the time of Pyrrhus consisted of only ten vessels.

A Carthaginian vessel having been stranded while cruising on the coast of Italy, the Romans seized it, and used it as a model for their largest ships of war, called *Quinquiremes*, from having five benches of oars. In two months a fleet of a hundred vessels was completed.

With this fleet the Roman consul defeated the Carthaginians on the northern coast of Sicily, taking and destroying fifty ships and ten thousand men. The success of the Romans in this, their first naval battle, was chiefly owing to a machine of their own invention, called the *Corvus*, with which they grappled the enemy's vessel, and were then able to board it. Neither the lighter construction of the Carthaginian ships, nor the skill of the mariners, could avail against their enemies; whichever way they advanced to the attack, these formidable machines were opposed to them; and they were compelled to retire, and yield the victory to the Romans.

REGULUS.

YEAR OF ROME, 503.

THREE years after their first victory, the Romans conquered the Carthaginians in another naval battle. They now resolved to invade the enemy's territory, and passed over into Africa with an army, in which Regulus was one of the commanders. He ravaged the country, and

established himself within a few miles of Carthage. That people sued for peace; but Regulus treated their envoys with so much arrogance, and offered terms so intolerable, that they were indignantly rejected. Meantime, a Spartan officer named Xanthippus, of considerable military fame, arrived at Carthage, and was appointed to the command of the troops.

Regulus was now general-in-chief. He was soon completely defeated by the Spartan leader, and taken prisoner.

For some time the Romans suffered various disasters; but having gained a battle at Panormus, in Sicily, in which many noble Carthaginians were taken prisoners, Regulus was sent to Rome with an embassy, to treat for their release, under a promise to return if they were unsuccessful. Regulus magnanimously advised the senate to refuse the exchange; and, his advice being followed, he returned to Carthage, where he died soon afterwards.

Many historians relate, that Regulus suffered severe torture, and was put to a cruel death. Polybius, who has given a detailed account of the Punic War, is entirely silent upon the subject; although the tradition, which had been eagerly credited by the Romans, must have been well known to him. The determined and im-

placable animosity between the two nations, and on the part of the Romans more especially, must also render very doubtful the story that is current respecting the treatment of the consul.

THE SECOND PUNIC WAR.

YEAR OF ROME, 535.

THE Carthaginians had submitted to the hard conditions imposed upon them by the treaty, which put an end to the First Punic War, for twenty-two years; during which period they were engaged in hostilities with the states of Africa.

The Romans took advantage of the situation of the Carthaginians, whose treasury was exhausted by these wars, and required the surrender of Sardinia with a heavy fine, although they had no injury to complain of. Hamilcar, the Carthaginian general, always mindful of the loss of Sicily, and still more indignant at this proceeding, predicted to his fellow citizens, that they must either finally become the subjects of Rome, or take measures for rendering themselves the more powerful republic.

In this opinion the people concurred; and a new army was raised, in order to extend their

conquests in Spain, a country abounding in riches, and able to supply brave troops to contend with their powerful enemy. The Carthaginians, however, though suffering under oppression themselves, do not appear to have questioned their own right to the territories of the nations occupying Spain; for, like people of more advanced civilization, they held the claims of *barbarian* tribes as of very slight importance.

HANNIBAL AT THE ALTAR.

BEFORE Hamilcar departed from Carthage, he offered a sacrifice for the success of his voyage; his son Hannibal, then nine years of age, was present. The rites being finished, Hamilcar inquired of his son whether he would go with him to Spain. Hannibal eagerly declared his consent, and earnestly besought his father to take him thither. Hamilcar then led the child to the altar of sacrifice, caused him to lay his hand upon it, and swear that he would never be in friendship with the Romans.

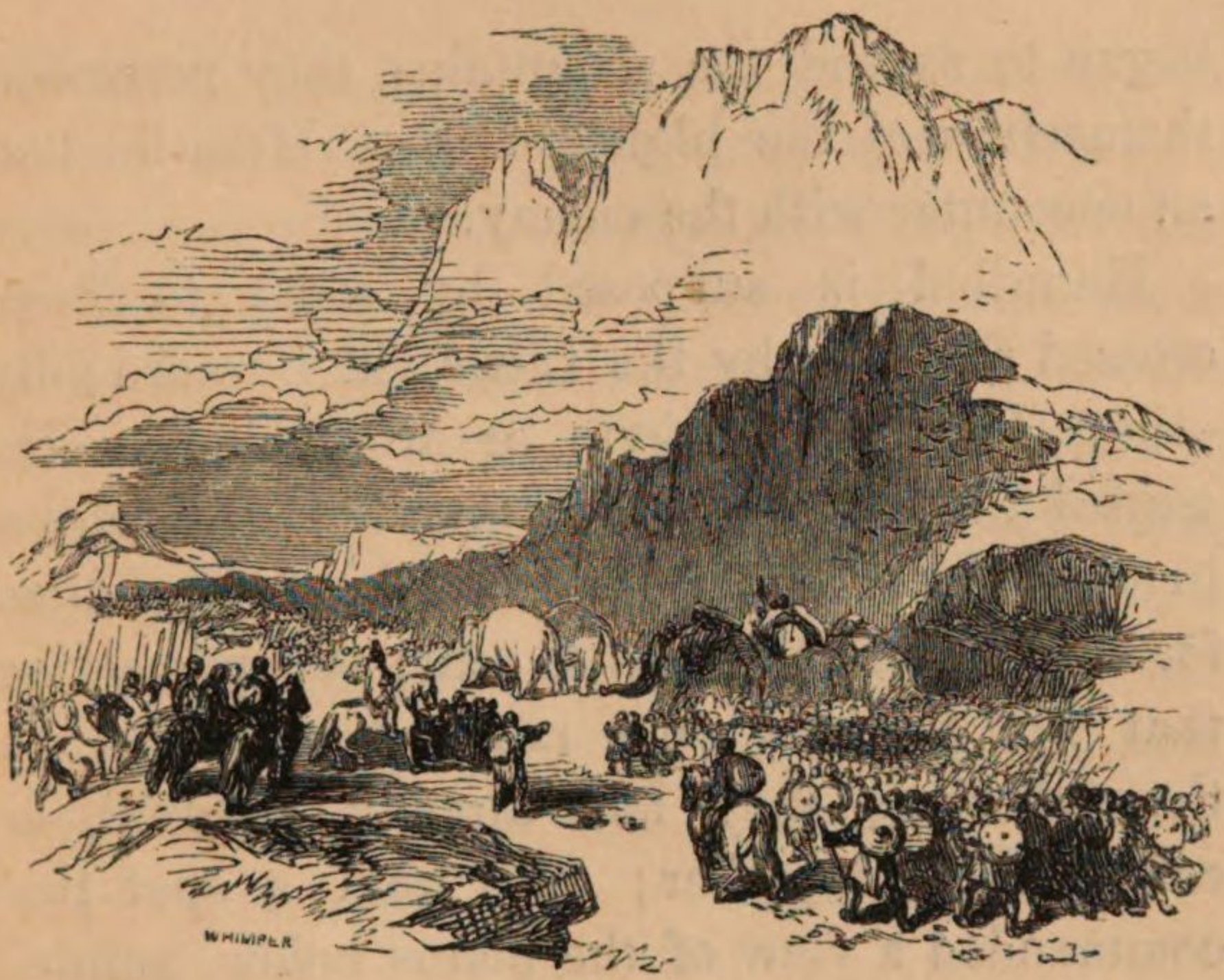
HANNIBAL A GENERAL.

After the death of Hamilcar, Asdrubal took the command in Spain: he gained more adherents by his address and wisdom in council, than his predecessor had done by the sword. This general was treacherously murdered by a Gaul.

The Carthaginians, in compliance with the wishes of the army, named Hannibal their commander.

The siege of Saguntum, a city on the Iberus, (Ebro,) was one of young Hannibal's first achievements; but he had already conceived more extensive views, and proposed to himself the bold enterprise of passing the mountains, and carrying the war into Italy.

The Romans, desirous of securing the aid of the nations of Spain and Gaul, had sent ambassadors thither; but they met with no success: Hannibal had been beforehand with them, and had gained over the Gauls to his side, who made common cause with him against the Romans. They also informed him, by the ambassadors he had sent, that the passage of the mountains, though difficult, was not impracticable. Animated by this intelligence, Hannibal openly discoursed of his progress to Rome, exhorting his assembled army to engage cheerfully in this expedition; and he added, that the Romans had demanded that himself and all his officers should be delivered up to them. The soldiers loudly declared their readiness to go wherever Hannibal should lead them; and he fixed the day for the beginning of the march.



HANNIBAL PASSING THE ALPS.

THE Carthaginian general, having reached the borders of Spain, passed the Pyreenes with an army of 50,000 foot, and 9000 horse; troops well trained under the ablest captains that Carthage could boast. He found the Gauls that inhabited the region of those mountains in arms against him; but by fair words and presents he gained them over to favour his progress. He continued his march to the banks of the Rhine, which he crossed, together with his horses and elephants, making use of boats and other means for passing the stream. The Allobroges offered much opposition to Hannibal, and when he

began to ascend the mountains, they possessed themselves of the highest cliffs. Here he had an encounter with the enemy.

Hannibal is supposed by some to have crossed the Alps by the Little St. Bernard; by others, by Mont Genèvre, or Mont Cenis. He gained the summit after a march of nine days, in which he suffered many hardships. He halted for two days in the intense cold; and, perceiving that his soldiers were much discouraged by the sufferings they had already endured, he called them together; and, from a spot that commanded a view of the plains below, pointed to them, saying, "Cast your eyes on that fruitful country: the Gauls there are our friends. You have scaled the ramparts of Italy, and even the walls of Rome itself. One or two battles gained, and the capital of Italy is ours."

The descent was perilous. It was difficult to keep the track; yet if the men or horses swerved from it, they fell down the precipices, or sank into the depths of snow. At length their progress was wholly stopped. The path was become impassable by the fall of a large quantity of rock, so that neither elephants nor horses could advance. After many vain attempts, Hannibal caused the snow to be removed, pitched

his camp, and gave orders to cut a winding path in the rock itself. This work was carried on with so much vigour that at the end of the day the horses were able to descend without much difficulty. The entire passage of the mountains occupied fifteen days. The story of the softening of the rocks by heat, and cutting through them after pouring vinegar over the heated portion, is not to be credited. Polybius asserts that trees were not to be obtained there, nor in any neighbouring part of the mountain.

HANNIBAL AND SCIPIO.

THE Carthaginians, having taken time to recruit their strength after the dangerous descent of the Alps, now advanced, and were met near the river Ticinus by the Roman army commanded by Scipio. This general proved unsuccessful, and also received a severe wound. Sempronius took the command, and hazarded another battle, in which he also was defeated; but through the inclemency of the weather, the Carthaginians lost great numbers of men and horses; and all their elephants, but one, died.

HANNIBAL PASSES THE APENNINES.

When winter was over, the Carthaginians crossed these mountains and entered Etruria, and chose a short way through marshes. They continued their march to the lake of Thrasymenus, where Hannibal heard that Flaminius the consul was following him into the valley. A thick fog so impeded the view, that the Romans were beset on all sides without being able distinctly to see the enemy. Plutarch and Livy assert, that so great was the fury of the onset, that the combatants were not sensible of an earthquake which took place during the engagement. The Romans were totally defeated, and the city was filled with consternation at these unusual misfortunes.

HANNIBAL AT CANNÆ.

At sunrise the terrible battle of Cannæ was begun by the Roman cavalry, led by the consul Æmilius. They were routed, and nearly destroyed. The same fate attended the infantry, amounting to 70,000; and many eminent persons were slain. Hannibal was master of the country, while the Romans were daily expecting his approach to the city. The wisdom of the advice of Fabius, and the prudence of his conduct during the short time he had the command in Italy, were now apparent. That able commander avoided coming to an open conflict with

the enemy; but his caution was then blamed, and was even attributed to bad motives. Now he was principally consulted, and immediately began his efforts to retrieve the disasters of the Roman state.

Fabius Cunctator (Delayer) was one of the greatest generals of Rome. By a succession of marches and counter-marches, choosing always good positions, he continually harassed the enemy, who could never draw him into ground favourable for an attack, while Fabius watched the opportunity to avail himself of any false movement on the part of the Carthaginians.

This mode of warfare probably saved Rome, by thus keeping Hannibal in check. During Fabius's absence from Rome the command of the army was given to Varro, who had lost the battle of Cannæ.

HANNIBAL RECALLED.

YEAR OF ROME, 550.

SCIPIO meantime had passed over to Africa to attack the Carthaginians in their own territory. Hannibal received orders to embark his army, and return, that he might defend his country.

He was overwhelmed with grief, and declared that the Romans had not conquered him, but the senate of Carthage by envy and calumny. No man leaving his own country as an exile could show more regret than Hannibal did on being forced to quit Italy.

On his landing and advance towards Carthage he was met and defeated by Scipio. The Carthaginians were forced to sue for peace, and thus ended the Second Punic War.

Hannibal had many enemies in the state, and the Roman hatred pursued him everywhere. He fled to foreign countries whose cause he had supported in time of war. To avoid falling into the hands of his foes this brave man, so long the terror of the Romans, put an end to his life by poison, whilst at the court of Prusias, king of Bithynia, in Asia Minor.

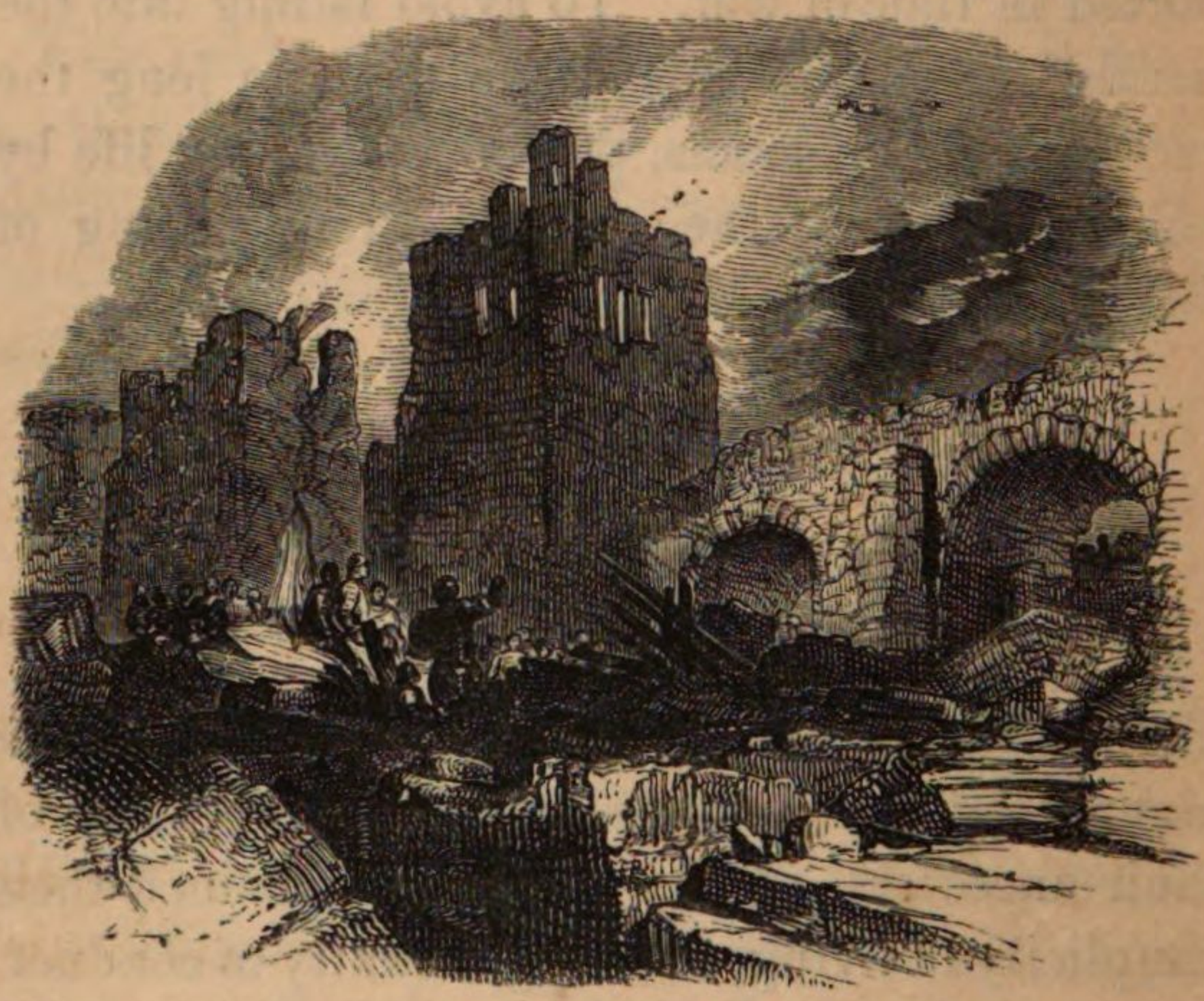
THE THIRD PUNIC WAR.

YEAR OF ROME, 604.

PROSPERITY had at this time rendered the manners of the Romans far inferior to those of their ancestors. They no longer retained their simplicity of living, and magnanimity of conduct. Money and luxury had spoiled them; and their

treatment of Carthage was unworthy of a brave people. To this course they were in some measure urged by Cato the Censor, a most rigid and austere man, whose hatred to the rival nation was implacable.

The Carthaginians made a spirited and brave stand against the besieging army of Rome. They were ultimately overcome, and the city itself was levelled with the ground by the decree of the Roman senate, under the direction of Scipio Æmilianus.



Carthage destroyed.

THE GRACCHI.

YEAR OF ROME, 620.

ABOUT this period these celebrated sons of Cornelia, daughter of Scipio Africanus, engaged in attempts to benefit the mass of the Roman citizens.

The long wars in which the Romans had been engaged led to the introduction of a large number of slaves into Italy, who were employed in agriculture, to the exclusion of the regular labourers of the country, chiefly in cultivating the great estates of the rich.

In the earliest periods of Roman government the conquered lands were partly given to the poorer citizens, on condition of paying a small tax.

By a law made by the senate no man could hold more than 500 acres of land. This law had fallen into disuse, and Tiberius Gracchus undertook to remedy the disorder.

After a considerable struggle Tiberius Gracchus was slain in a tumult raised by the nobility of Rome. His vigorous efforts to remedy the disorders of the state, and to enforce compliance with just and salutary measures, render Tiberius Gracchus worthy the name of patriot.

Caius, his brother, during his tribuneship gained complete power over the people. His conduct was unwise in various instances; nor was he free from ambition. The senate and the nobles were opposed to him, and he was obliged to make his escape during a conflict between his adherents and the soldiers sent out to attack them. He was followed by one of his slaves, who, by his own order, put an end to the life of his master.

MARIUS AND SULLA.

YEAR OF ROME, 647—671.

CONTINUAL wars, either with distant countries, or with the Gallic and Italian states, were the principal employment of the Romans.

At this period Marius became noted as a successful general in Africa, against Jugurtha, king of Numidia; and being sent to oppose the hosts of barbarians which then appeared on the northern frontiers of Italy, he entirely subdued them.

Marius was several times consul; but towards the close of his life he was supplanted by Sulla,

or Sylla, with whom he engaged in a civil war. Marius was forced to escape into Africa, but returned to Italy, where he lost his life at Præneste, either by his own hand, or by treachery.

Sulla spared none of the adverse party. Rome was filled with consternation at the slaughter committed. The tyrant also caused a list to be fixed in a public place with the names of eighty persons whom he had doomed to die. This mode of condemnation was called *proscription*, of which Sulla was the inventor. Many more of these lists appeared, and the number of persons put to death is estimated at several thousands. Among the proscribed persons was JULIUS CÆSAR.

Sulla was made dictator, and the Romans seem to have submitted to all his laws, his edicts, and his proscriptions, without even an attempt to throw off his sanguinary despotism.

At length, to the astonishment of the public, Sulla resigned the dictatorship, committed the government to the care of the new consuls, and withdrew into private life at Cumæ, where he abandoned himself to vicious pleasures. He was seized with a horrible distemper, and expired in extreme pain. His end was hastened by a fit of rage, in which he caused a person to be strangled in his presence, in consequence of some offence.

THE FIRST TRIUMVIRATE.

YEAR OF ROME, 693.

CRASSUS, Pompey, and Cæsar, were now in possession of the chief power of the state; Crassus, on account of his great wealth, Pompey for his power over the military, and Cæsar for his eloquence and nobleness of nature. These men made a solemn league to let nothing pass in the commonwealth without their joint approbation. This league is commonly called the First Triumvirate.

At this period, also, Cicero, the celebrated Roman orator, flourished. He was concerned

in most of the leading events of those disturbed times. His orations are many of them extant, and his treatises "On Old Age" and "On Friendship" are highly admired.

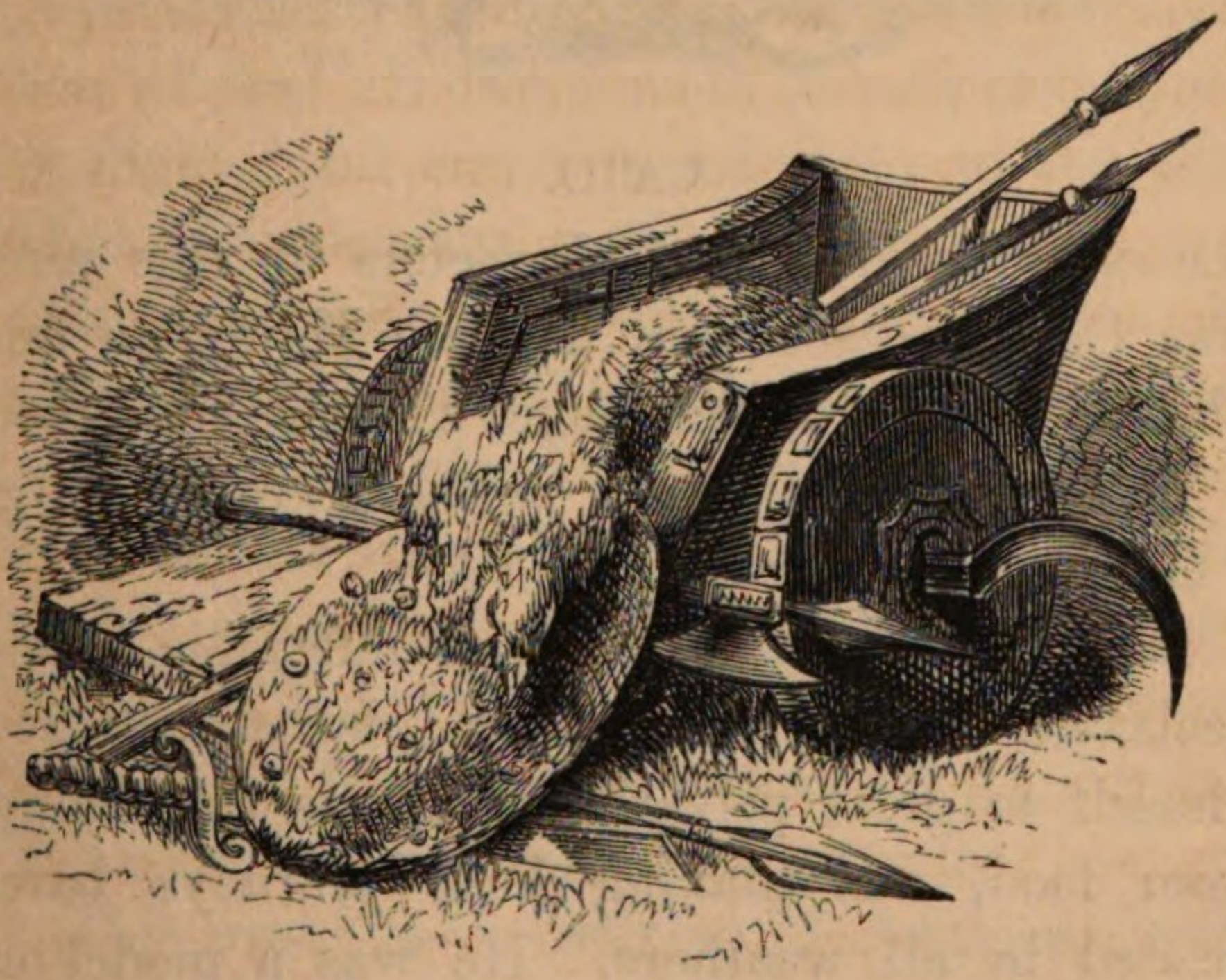
Julius Cæsar subdued Gaul, and passed over into Britain, 55 years B.C., embarking between Calais and Boulogne. He crossed the Channel in about ten hours, and, perceiving the steep cliffs covered with armed men, proceeded from the southern to the eastern coast of Kent, and landed on the flat shore near Sandwich. He did not make good his landing without a severe struggle.

Cæsar did not remain long in Britain; but, having obliged the natives to sue for peace, he returned to Gaul. He again attacked the Britons in the following year, and conquered many of the smaller states. But his success was not such as to induce an entire subjugation of the island; nor did the Romans return thither until the reign of Claudius.

Cæsar, on proceeding to Rome, resolved not to give up the command of the army, lest he should put himself in the power of his enemies. But the senate, acting under the influence of Pompey, required Cæsar to resign the command, on peril of being declared an enemy to the state. He had halted on the river Rubicon;

but on hearing this determination he boldly crossed the stream, which was the limit of his Gallic province, and continued his march to Rome.

Pompey withdrew to Epirus, and Cæsar assumed the title of Dictator on arriving at Rome. Pompey lost the battle of Pharsalia, in Thessaly, and escaped to Egypt, where he was treacherously murdered on the shore, at Pelusium, at the moment of his landing.



British Car.

CATO.

AMONG the celebrated characters of this time was Cato, a descendant of Cato Major, an implacable enemy of Carthage, who seldom closed a speech in the senate without exclaiming, "*Carthage must be destroyed!*"

Like his ancestor, Cato was inflexible in his decisions, severe, and harsh; he accustomed himself to great privations, such as abstaining from food, and making long journeys bare-headed in all weathers. He was a model of sobriety and courage when engaged in war. He

strongly opposed the union of the First Triumvirate; but he so greatly esteemed Cicero, that he gave him the title of "Father of his Country" (*Pater Patriæ*). Having vainly endeavoured to reconcile Cæsar and Pompey, he took the side of the latter; and at his death went to Africa. Here he had the command of the troops; but a dispute arising with another of the leaders, he gave up the command against the wishes of the army.

The African territories soon surrendered to Cæsar; the only remaining opposition was at Utica, whither Cato retired, recommending the citizens to stand a siege. But the approach of Cæsar alarmed them into submission, and Cato then advised his own friends to save themselves by flight; and accompanied them to the port. After the evening meal, and a spirited conversation with some other philosophers, he embraced his son with unusual affection, then lay down upon his couch, and read a portion of a work of Plato, "On the Immortality of the Soul." The same night he put an end to his life by stabbing himself with his sword, to avoid falling into the power of the victor; nor would he survive the freedom of his country.

This event is the subject of Addison's well-known tragedy, "Cato."

JULIUS CÆSAR'S DEATH.

YEAR OF ROME, 709.

AFTER the death of Pompey and Crassus, the senate bestowed upon Cæsar. all the titles that flattery could invent. He was declared *Imperator*, in a sense that gave him the command of all the forces of the republic, and the management of the revenues. His person was declared sacred; and the month Quintilis being that of his birth, it received the name of Julius. He was allowed a chair of gold in the Senate and the Forum; a crown of laurel; a statue in every town, two in the rostra, (the place in the Forum, whence the orators delivered their

addresses to the people,) and one in the Capitol, among the ancient kings. Many other honours are mentioned by historians, but probably without ground.

Cæsar also had designed many improvements and ornamental buildings for the city. He undertook to drain the Pontine marshes, which rendered the air of the adjacent parts very unwholesome; to dig a new channel for the Tiber to the sea, to facilitate the navigation of that river, and to make the port of Ostia capable of receiving first-rate vessels; to cut a road over the Apennines, from the Adriatic sea to Rome and to cut through the isthmus of Corinth, with a view of saving the time, trouble, and danger, of sailing round the projecting land of Peloponnesus. He filled up the highest posts of trust and honour with men of eminence, courage, and capacity; relying entirely, without guards, on the affections of the people, when a conspiracy was formed against his life.

The leaders of this conspiracy were Brutus and Cassius, although the former had been particularly distinguished by the clemency of Cæsar after the battle of Pharsalia, (when Brutus took the part of Pompey,) who had also spared Cassius at the request of Brutus, upon whom he afterwards bestowed many personal favours.

Cæsar was assassinated on the ides (15th) of March. He had scarcely seated himself in his place in the senate, when he received a wound. He was endeavouring to rush forward, when he was again struck, and, seeing Brutus among the conspirators, he exclaimed, "And thou, also, Brutus!" then finding himself surrounded by drawn daggers, he wrapped his head in his *toga* or gown, spreading it also over his person, and fell, at the foot of Pompey's statue, pierced with numerous wounds.

Thus perished Julius Cæsar, the first captain of the age in which he lived, brave in war, placable to his enemies in time of peace, as his conduct towards Cicero indicated; and his "Commentaries" still exist to prove his talents as a writer. To Cæsar we are indebted for an account of our own island and its inhabitants in its uncivilized state. His death occurred forty-four years only before the commencement of the Christian æra. He is reckoned the first of the twelve Cæsars.

The following year a new league was formed between Octavius, nephew of Cæsar, Mark Antony, and Lepidus, whose object was to destroy the republican party by proscriptions and cruel measures. This led to a civil war.

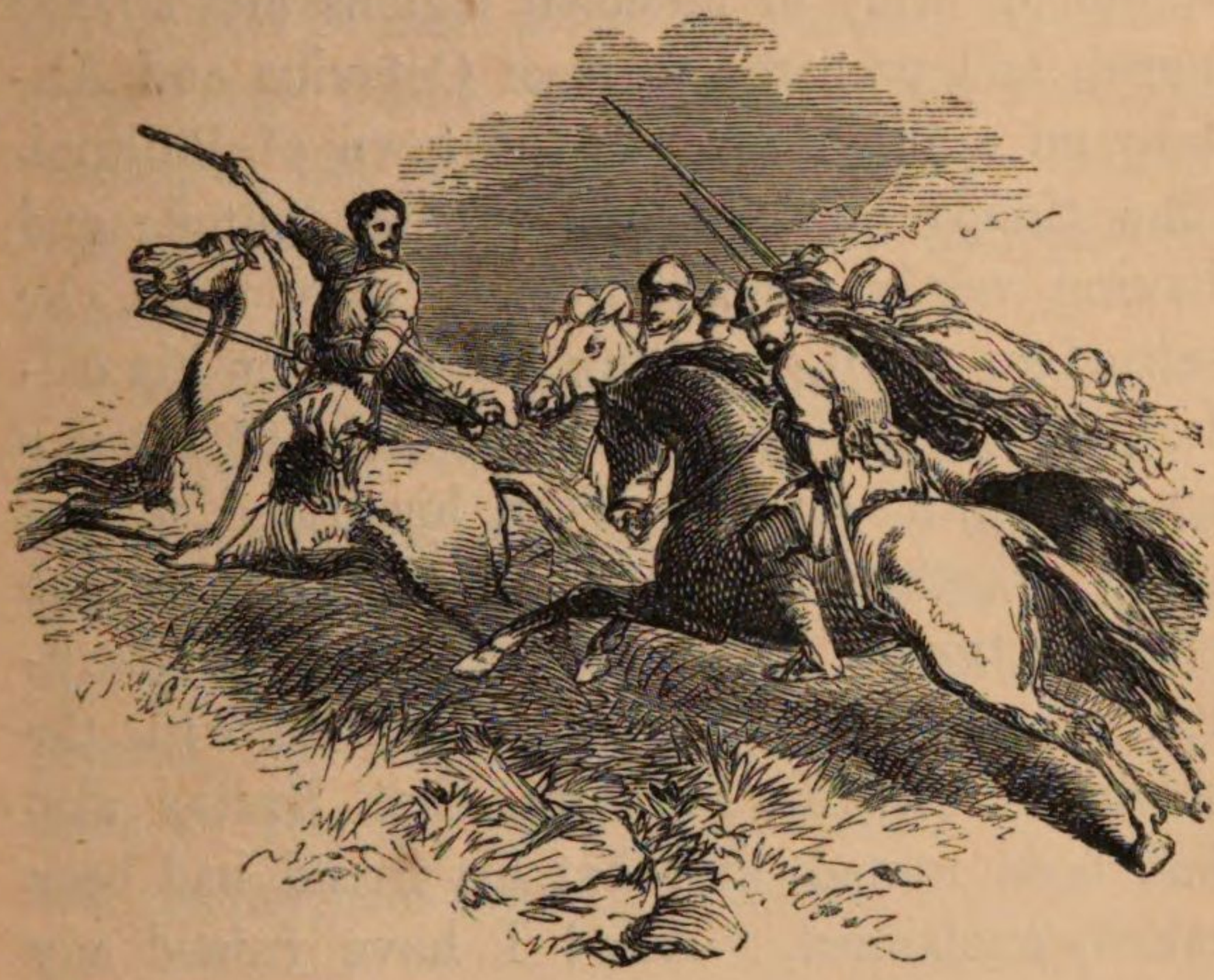
DEATH OF CICERO.

AMONG those who perished during the proscription was Cicero. He had himself applauded the murder of Cæsar, as a benefit to the country, and was present at the time. Cicero composed and delivered his celebrated Philippics either in the Senate or the Forum, to excite the people against Antony and his friends. Octavius, it is said, endeavoured to save Cicero, and struggled hard with his associates for that end; and through him the information of his danger first reached Cicero, then at his Tusculan villa, with his brother and his nephew. These persons returned to Rome, and were

discovered, and put to death. Cicero went on board a vessel, and proceeded toward Cajeta, where he returned to land, and repaired to a villa he possessed on the coast. Here he slept for several hours, till he was roused by his servants, who, hearing that soldiers were approaching, forced their master into a litter, and hurried through the bye ways of his wood towards the ship.

No sooner was he gone, than the soldiers arrived at the house, whence they instantly pursued him towards the sea, and overtook him in the wood. Their leader was a man whom Cicero had successfully defended in a cause of great risk. The servants prepared to fight, resolved to defend their master. But he ordered them to set him down, and make no resistance; then looking upon his executioners with a firmness that almost daunted them, and thrusting out his neck from the litter, bade them do their work, and take what they wanted.

Having cut off the head and both hands, the leader of the soldiers took upon himself to present them to Antony, disregarding the infamy of the action; for Cicero had saved his life by pleading his cause. Antony ordered the head and hands to be placed on the rostra,—a spectacle that drew tears from the beholders.



THE BATTLE OF PHILIPPI.

YEAR OF ROME, 711.

THE triumvirs having satisfied their revenge by taking the lives of those who approved, or aided in, the murder of Julius Cæsar, (in which the gratification of their own ambition doubtless occupied no small part,) they prepared to carry on the war against Brutus and Cassius, who were in Macedonia, with the proscribed Romans who had made their timely escape. These two stern republicans were masters of the eastern provinces, and now made great exactions. They

raised an army of nineteen legions and 20,000 horse, and prepared to meet Octavius and Antony on a plain near to the town of Philippi. The troops of Cassius were first routed; and having vainly endeavoured to rally them, he retired to a hill, awaiting the event on his colleague's part. Perceiving a body of cavalry advancing, he sent an officer, his friend, to discover whether they were their own or the enemy's troops. The officer, instead of returning, marched on towards his general with the soldiers. Cassius, believing that Brutus also had been routed, and that his friend had been taken, exclaimed, "Alas! I have ruined my best friend;" and, retiring to his tent, killed himself. The officer, in despair at the result of his imprudence, slew himself on the body of Cassius.

Brutus was finally defeated after a sanguinary contest, and fled, being closely pursued by the enemy. In the morning, seeing that all was lost, he exclaimed in the words of an ancient poet, "O virtue, I follow thee as a solid good, but thou art only an empty name!"

Then drawing his friend Strato apart from the rest of his followers, he begged of him to do the last office. Seeing Strato very unwilling, he called for a slave. "It shall not be said that

the great Brutus stood in need of a slave," cried Strato: and, turning away his head, he presented the point of his sword to Brutus, who threw himself upon it, and immediately expired.

Thus fell the so-called champions of republican freedom, deemed "the last of the Romans." Cassius, however, was considered to have hated the *tyrant* more than tyranny, and had private views in the murder of Cæsar. Brutus was revered for his learning, capacity, and eloquence; yet his glory was sullied by pride, and cruelty, and even by avarice.

MARK ANTONY AND CLEOPATRA.

YEAR OF ROME, 711.

THE two generals now made a division of the provinces, and Antony undertook to go into the eastern parts to raise money for recompensing the soldiers.

Among the sovereigns dependent upon Antony, the queen of Egypt was the most distinguished. Antony, believing that she could have given more assistance during the recent

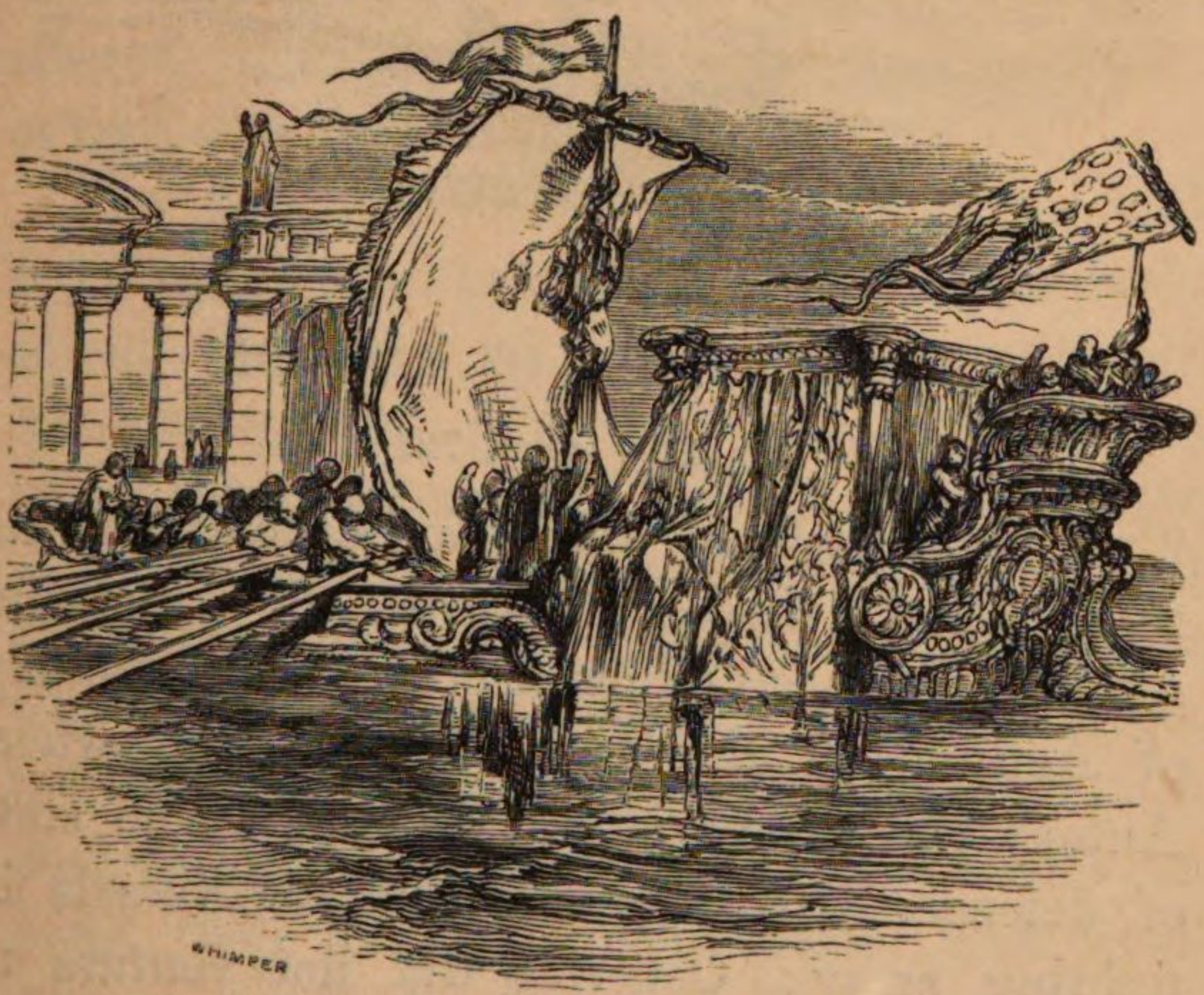
war, cited her to his tribunal at Tarsus in Cilicia. Cleopatra, having a full confidence in her power over characters like Antony, readily obeyed the summons. Arrived at the mouth of the Cydnus, she embarked in a vessel with sails of purple silk; the stern was of gold; and the oars, covered with plates of silver, kept time to a concert of music. The queen reclined beneath a canopy of cloth of gold, adorned like the goddess of beauty, and surrounded by Cupids.

Antony seated on a throne, desired her to land on her arrival, and sup with him; but she desired his company first, and he courteously complied. In fine, the warrior fell into the snares of the Egyptian queen, lured by her artifices, her grace, and her wit, and to this weakness he owed his ultimate ruin.

Octavius was highly offended with the proceedings of his colleague, who began to be despised by his own party, since he spent much of his time in vain pleasures and feasting. Rome was filled with complaints against him, as a slave to Cleopatra. His wife Octavia, the sister of Octavius, an excellent and admirable woman, he divorced, on being reproached by her brother for his shameful conduct. Respecting the marriages and divorce of Octavius himself

there is much to disapprove, and Antony did not fail to reproach him with it.

Octavius next obtained a decree to deprive Antony of the triumviral power; and war was declared, not against him, but Cleopatra.



WHIMPER

THE BATTLE OF ACTIUM.

YEAR OF ROME, 722.

THE two generals, after having collected all their forces, prepared for action. Octavius sailed at the head of his fleet to the promontory of Actium, in the gulf of Ambracia, where Antony's fleet lay at anchor, but in no state of defence. However, he put his vessels in fighting array; Octavius did not venture to engage with him in so narrow a passage, and stood off to sea. The two armies then encamped on either side of the gulf, where they remained for several months skirmishing occasionally.

The question in Antony's camp was, whether to trust all to a naval or a land battle? The commander of Antony's legions strongly urged him not to hazard the winds and seas. He proposed that Cleopatra should return to Egypt. Antony was much disposed to follow this advice; but Cleopatra biassed him the other way, and obliged him, contrary to his better judgment, to risk his empire and his life in a sea fight, and for the sole purpose, it is alleged, that she might escape more easily in case of a defeat.

The battle continued for some time with equal success and bravery, when, by a movement among the ships of Octavius, Antony's fleet was thrown into disorder. The advantage on either side still remained doubtful, till Cleopatra, wearied with expectation, and overcome with fear, tacked about, and fled off to Peloponnesus with sixty sail; and Antony himself, regardless of his honour, followed her precipitately, abandoning his men, who had generously exposed their lives for his interest. The battle continued till the forces of Antony submitted to the victor.

DEATH OF ANTONY.

Cleopatra and Antony repaired to Alexandria, where the latter shut himself up in imitation of Timon of Athens, the misanthrope. This fancy did not last long, but quitting his cell, he gave himself up to feasting and extravagance.

Cleopatra is said to have made experiments of all sorts of poison and venomous animals, in order to discover the speediest and most easy death.

Octavius was now advancing towards Alexandria, and Antony, perceiving that no other hope remained to him, resolved to die like a Roman. He made an onset, and drove back the soldiers

of Octavius. The next day another engagement took place, when the greater part of the troops deserted, together with the fleet. Hastening back to the city, he soon after stabbed himself; but the wound was not immediately fatal.

Cleopatra had built herself a tomb, into which she removed all her treasure, declaring her resolution to set fire to the building, and perish, if needful. From this place she sent, entreating Antony to come there; but she dared not open the door, and attempted to draw him up to the window by cords. Having done this, she gave vent to passionate grief. Antony asked for wine, and having advised the queen to save her life if she could do it with honour, he expired.

DEATH OF CLEOPATRA.

YEAR OF ROME, 723.

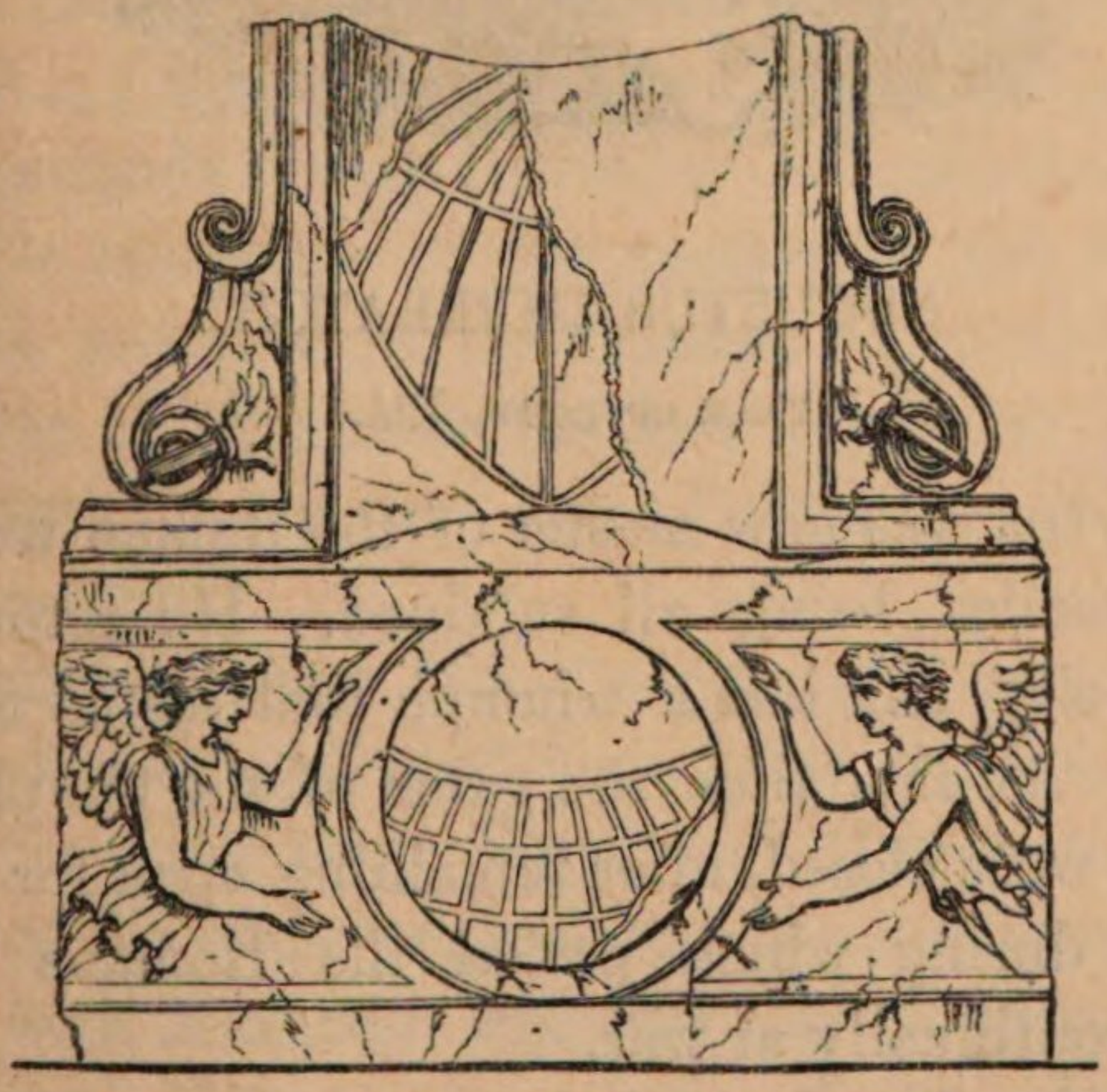
ANTONY'S sword was carried to Octavius with an account of his death. He declared that he had done nothing to destroy Antony through hatred or ambition, and showed his friends the copies of letters which he had written to him, containing just and reasonable proposals, and Antony's replies filled with disdain and passion.

Octavius sent a trusty adherent to seize Cleopatra, being eager to obtain her treasure, and especially to grace his public triumph with her presence. She refused an entrance, but demanded her children. While one of the persons sent was discoursing with the queen below, two or three others made an entrance at the window where Antony had been drawn up. One of the attendants exclaimed, "Wretched princess, thou art taken alive!" Cleopatra, seeing the Roman, drew her dagger to stab herself, but he caught her arm, assuring her she would injure both herself and Cæsar. He then disarmed her and searched her garments, fearing she might have poison concealed in them, and having prevented all means of escape, he returned with these tidings to Octavius.

The victorious chief entered Alexandria in triumph. He allowed Cleopatra to solemnize a magnificent funeral for Antony, and showed great attention to the captive queen. He paid her one visit, in which she used every attempt to appease him when accused of secreting her treasure, and deceived him with an idea that she wished to live; but the queen was the general's superior in dissimulation.

Soon after, Cleopatra learned that Octavius intended to send her and her children from

Alexandria; she took her final resolution, and privately ordered an asp to be concealed in a basket of figs that a countryman was engaged to supply for her table. After her repast she wrote a letter to Octavius, requesting to be placed in the same tomb with Antony, and, retaining only two female attendants, she applied her arm to the serpent, whose sting produces death in the most easy manner, causing only an extreme oppression over the frame like a heavy sleep; and thus she expired. Octavius ordered her to be buried, according to her desire, in the tomb of Mark Antony.



Sun-dial.

AUGUSTUS IMPERATOR.

YEAR OF ROME, 724.

OCTAVIUS was now master of the Roman world, his enemies being all subdued. He returned to the city, and had a triumph that lasted three days. At this time the gates of the temple of Janus were closed, after remaining open for 205 years, during which period the Romans had been continually at war.

On the first day of the year the consul, his

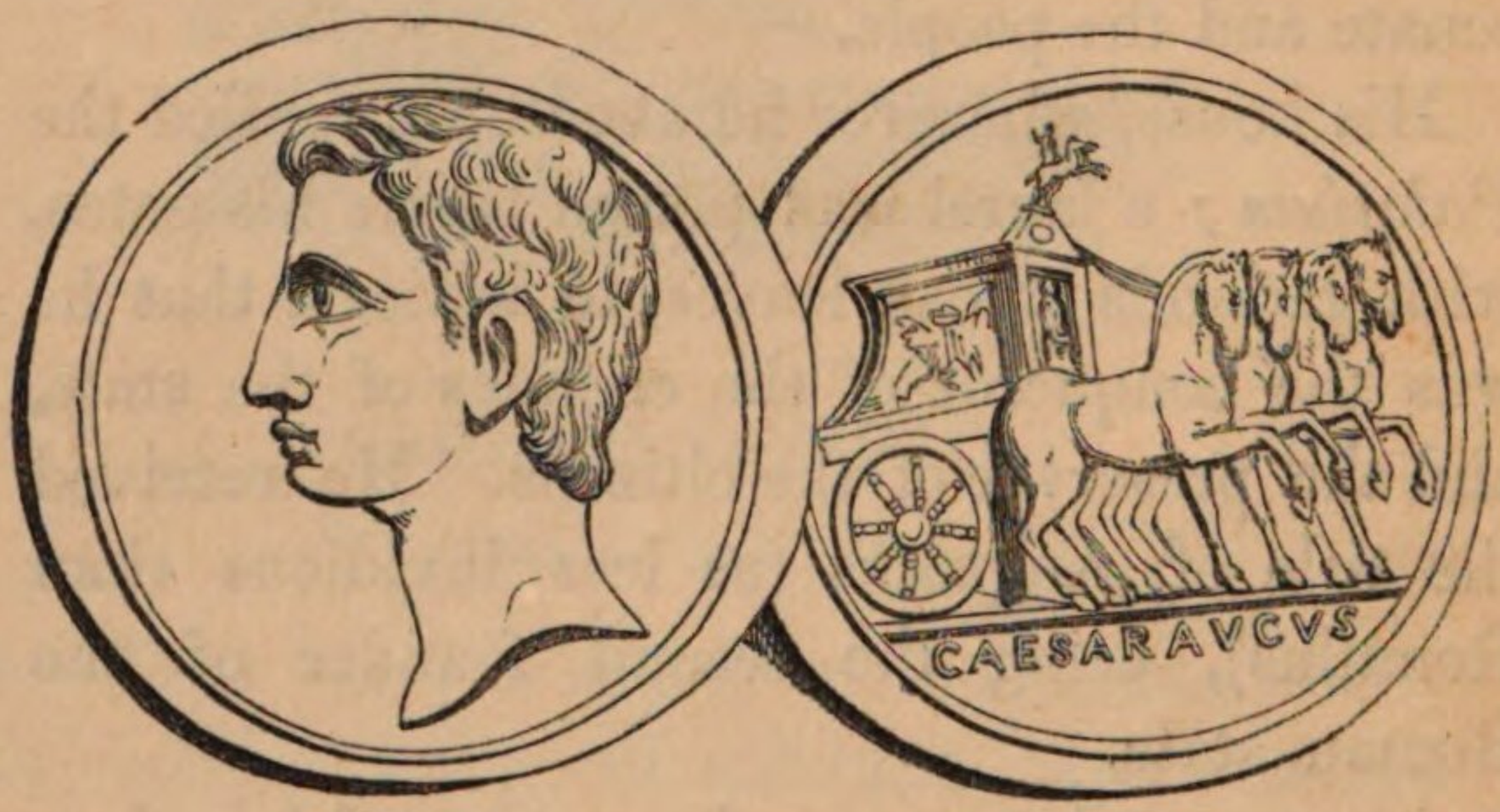
colleague, and the senate, took an oath to obey his orders. This ceremony was ever afterwards observed, and was, in fact, an oath of allegiance. He received the title of *Imperator*, which gave him the command of the armies; and he continued himself in the consulship till he gradually gained all the offices of state. The next year he resigned his power to the senate; then he was entreated and besought to take the sole administration of affairs under the title of Prince; a guard was appointed for him; and thus, by pretending to lay down his power, he procured a confirmation of it, both by the senate and the people.

His house, wherever he abode, was called the *Palatium;* a laurel was placed before his gates, with garlands of oak leaves, to indicate that he was the conqueror of the enemies of the state, and the preserver of the citizens. He received the title of Augustus (as less invidious than Romulus), being the second founder of the Roman state.

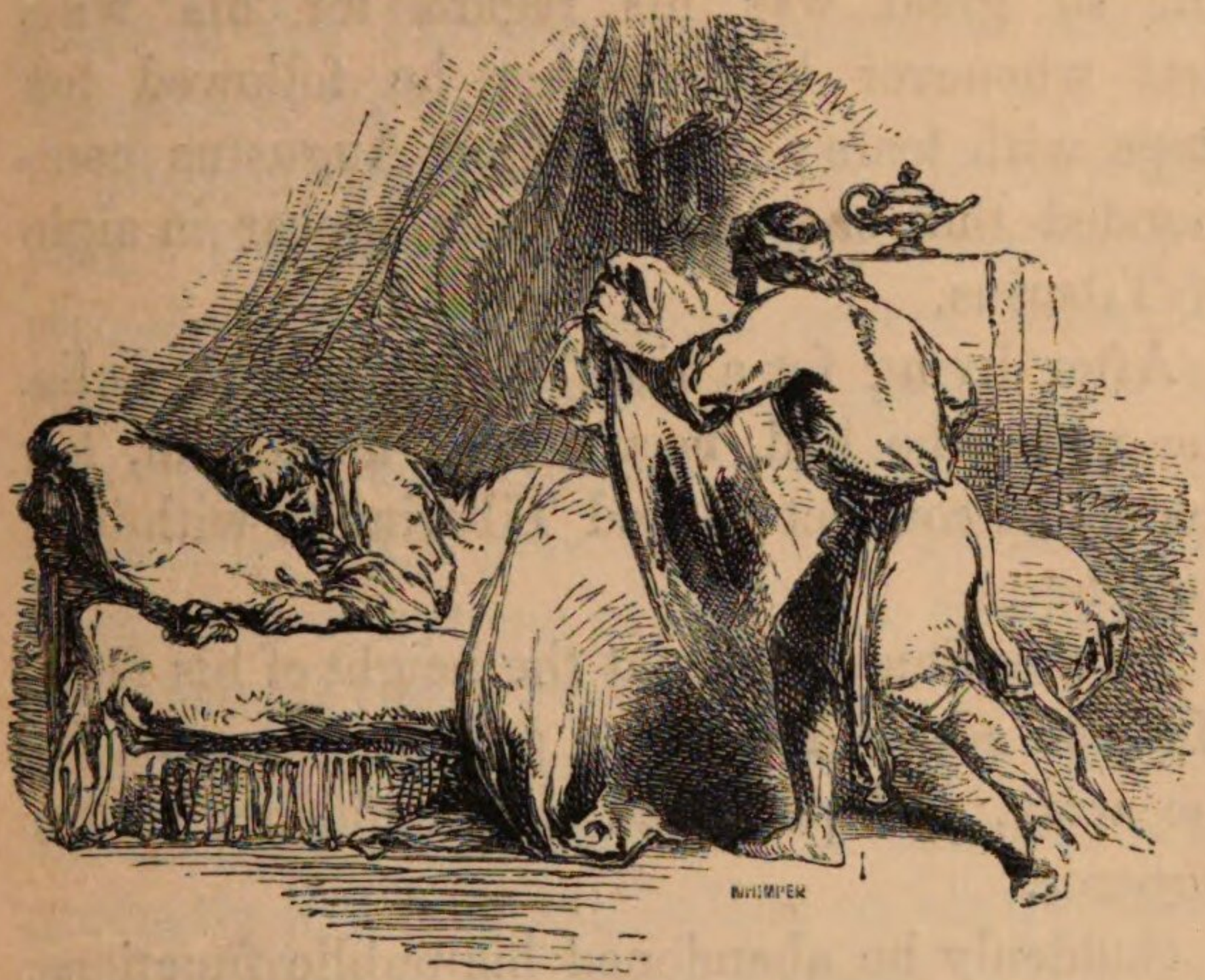
Augustus Cæsar was the patron of learning. His intimate and confidential friend Mæcenas introduced the poets Virgil and Horace to the notice of the emperor; and both lived on friendly terms with Mæcenas, who was a great patron of literature. Hence any one who adopts a similar

course in modern times is called a *Mæcenas*. Virgil composed his Æneid at the desire of Augustus.

Augustus held the supreme power during forty-four years. His only child Julia disgraced herself by her licentious manners; and he recommended his adopted son Tiberius as his successor after the death of his step-sons, Caius and Lucius Cæsar.



Coin of Augustus.



TIBERIUS.

THE successor and step-son of Augustus became emperor of Rome in the fourteenth year of the Christian era. Debased as he afterwards was by vice and crime, he appears to have had good feeling, affection, and great abilities in early life. It was during the period of this emperor's dominion that the Messiah lived and taught in Judea.

Tiberius married a Roman lady, for whom he had a strong affection; Augustus obliged him to divorce her, in order to unite him with his own daughter. Tiberius reluctantly complied;

but so great was his regard for his wife, that whenever he saw her he followed her steps with tears: upon which Augustus commanded that she should never appear in sight of Tiberius.

After living for a time in peace with Julia, the wife who had been forced upon him, her shameless conduct caused Tiberius to withdraw from her.

At this time he was at the height of his fame. He was admired by the people, respected by the army, and possessed the confidence of the emperor.

Suddenly he abandoned his public functions, left Rome, and retired to the island of Rhodes, without communicating his reasons to any one. Here he led a private life, refusing all honours, and maintaining a friendly intercourse with philosophers and poets. The disgusting conduct of Julia was supposed to be the cause of this singular resolution; but Tiberius afterwards avowed that he retired from public life to avoid all charges of having formed ambitious schemes against the successors of Augustus.

On his return to Rome, after an absence of eight years, Tiberius was received with joy by the people. After the death of the two brothers Caius and Lucius, one at Marseilles, and the

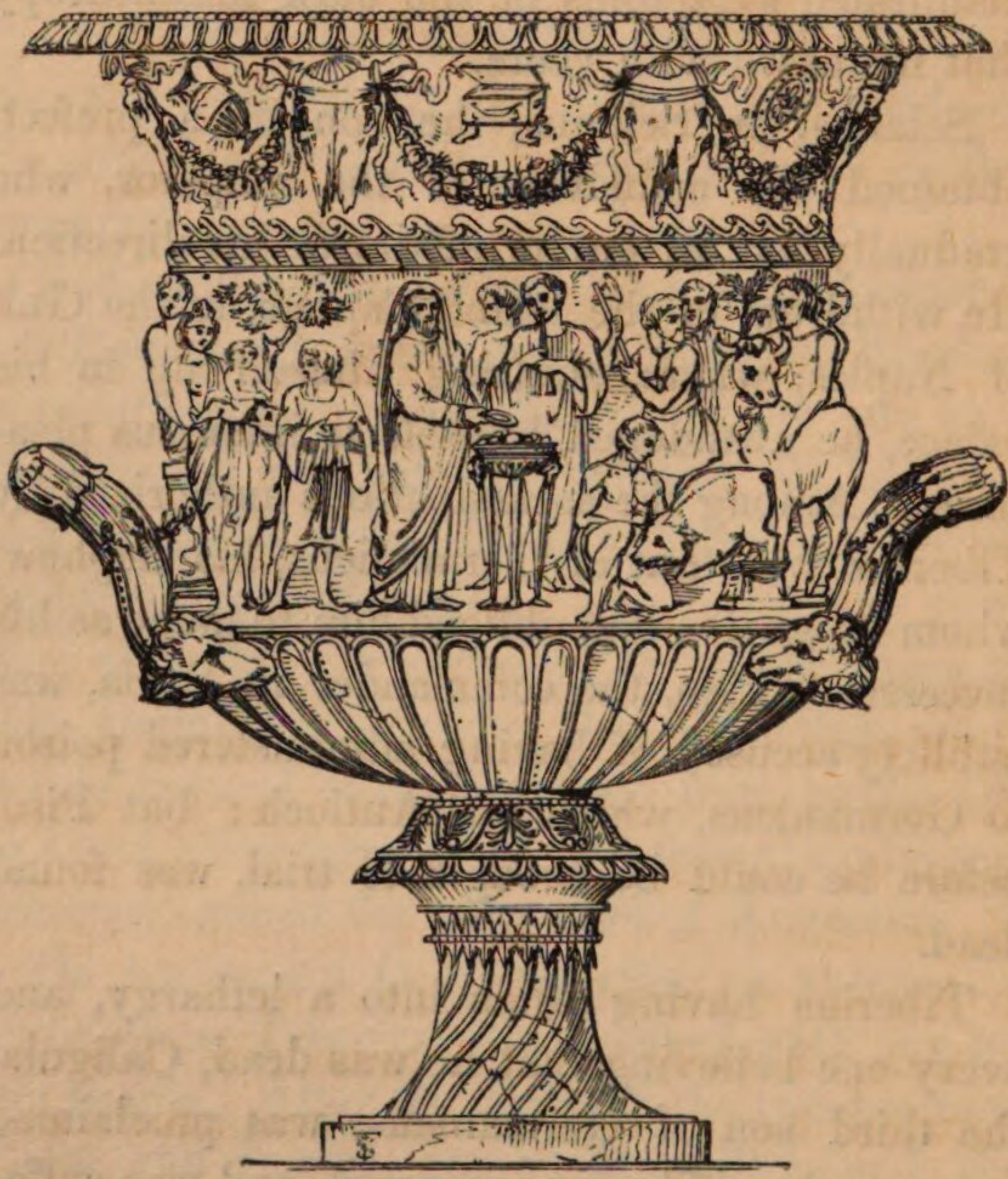
other in the Parthian war, Augustus adopted Tiberius as his successor.

Tiberius became emperor in his fifty-fifth year. Until that time he was considered a virtuous man, of a grave, severe character. But no sooner did he become emperor, than he was charged with crimes the most dreadful and disgusting. He grew cruel and gloomy, and manifested symptoms of the dark misanthropy that increased with years.

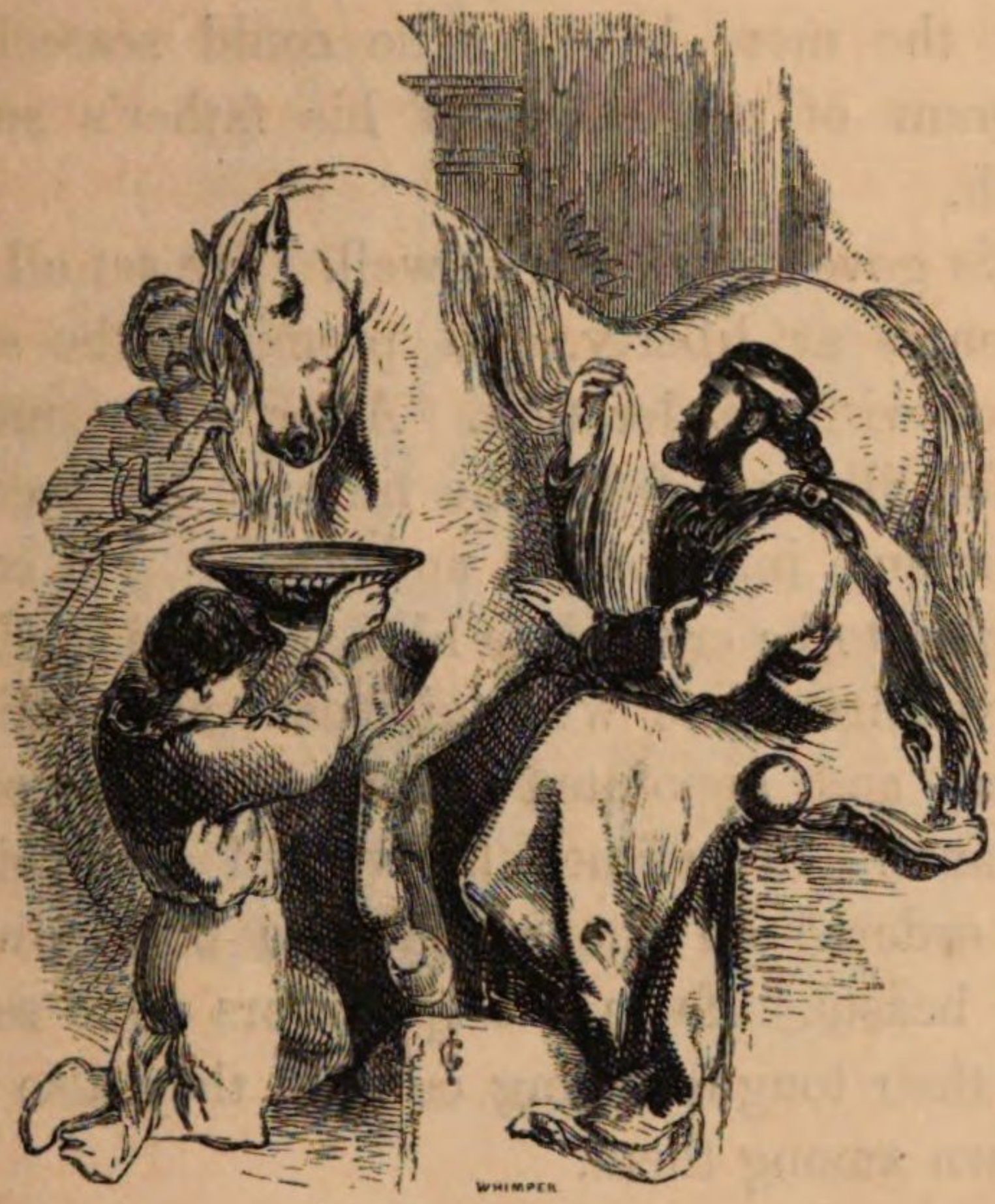
Seianus, or Sejanus, the son of a prefect, obtained the confidence of the emperor, who gradually left all public affairs to his direction. He withdrew to the island Capreæ, in the Gulf of Naples, where, shutting himself up in his palace, he abandoned himself to infamous pleasures. Among the assassinations authorized by Tiberius was that of Germanicus, his nephew, whom Augustus had obliged him to name as his successor. Piso, the commander in Syria, was publicly accused of having administered poison to Germanicus, whilst at Antioch; but Piso, before he could be brought to trial, was found dead.

Tiberius having fallen into a lethargy, and every one believing that he was dead, Caligula, the third son of Germanicus, was proclaimed emperor; but Tiberius recovered, and was suffo-

cated in his bed by one of Caligula's favourites. That the dark gloom of Tiberius terminated in insanity after his abode at Capreæ can scarcely be doubted. He had lucid intervals, when he wrote letters that confess the wretched state of his mind, of which some extracts are given by Suetonius.



Roman Sacrifice.



CALIGULA.

* A.D. 37.

THE word Caligula is a nickname given to this Roman emperor by the soldiers, from his having worn the *caliga*, a kind of shoe in use among the common men, which he frequently put on to ingratiate himself with the army.

Caligula early devoted himself to Tiberius, courting his favour by artful attentions: a con-

* *Anno Domini*, in the year of our Lord.

duct the more base, as he could scarcely be ignorant of the cause of his father's sudden death.

His government began well. He set all state prisoners at liberty, and promised the senate to act with moderation. After a few months he fell ill, and from the time of his recovery he became intemperate and cruel. He caused temples to be erected to him as a god. He fed a favourite horse with gilt oats and delicious wines, and appointed him a number of attendants. Sometimes he visited the prisons, and ordered all the captives to be thrown to wild beasts. Even the spectators were seized, and their tongues being cut out, they also were thrown among them.

This madman, as he probably was, pretended that he would invade Britain, but returned after he had been a few miles out at sea.

After a reign of nearly four years this wretched young man was murdered in his 29th year by a band of conspirators.

CLAUDIUS.

A.D. 41.

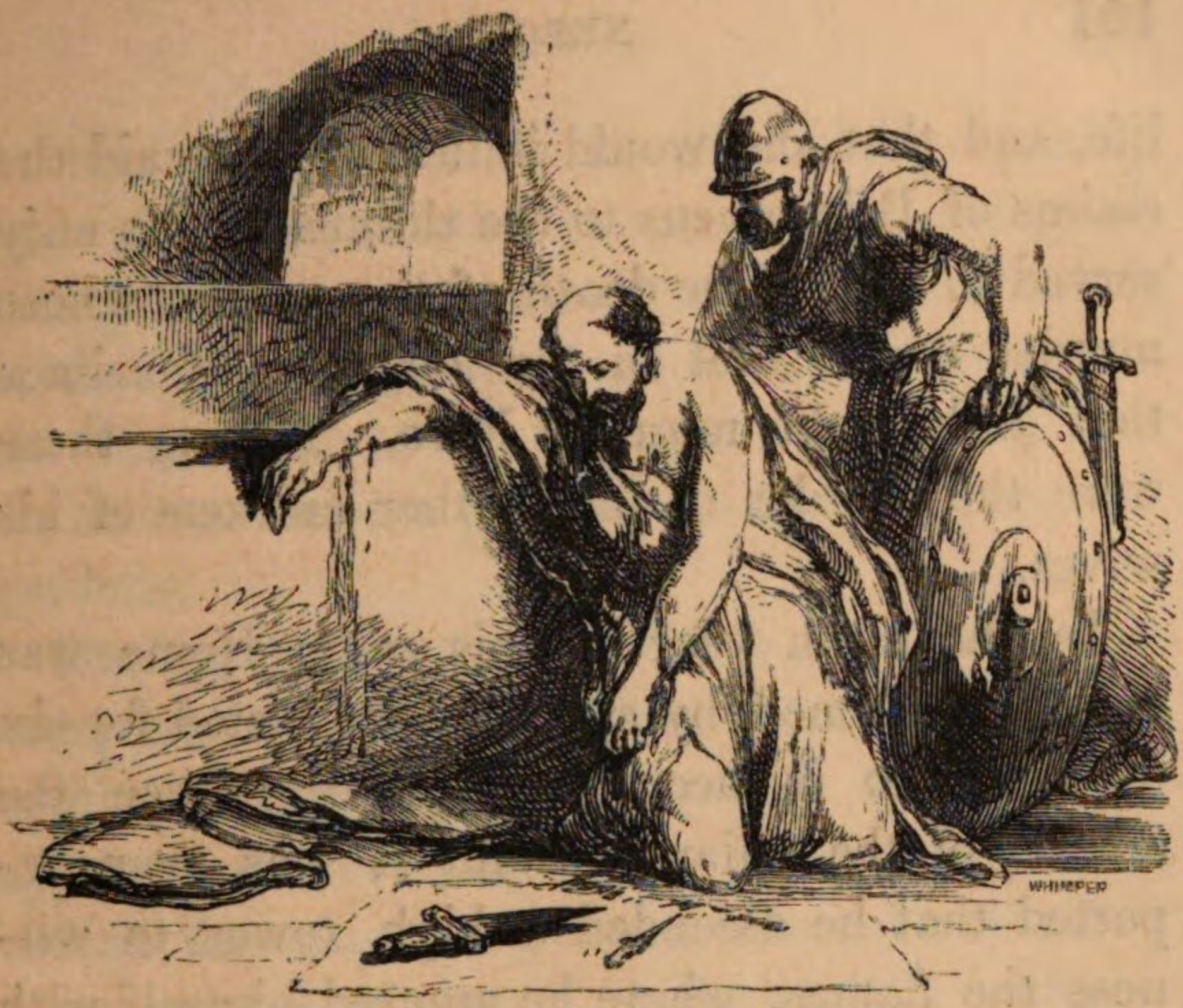
In his youth weak, sickly, and timid, Claudius was taken little notice of during the reigns of Augustus and Tiberius, and he was left to the company of the women and freedmen of the palace.

He applied himself to study, and was a proficient in Greek. Caligula made him consul, but at the expiration of the office he withdrew to privacy again.

After the death of his nephew Caligula, he was found concealed behind some tapestry by some mutinous soldiers, who were overrunning the palace.

They raised him on their shoulders, and carried him to the camp, where he was proclaimed emperor by the troops, contrary to the wishes of the senate and many of the citizens, who desired to restore the republic. This is the first instance of the practice so often repeated, of the soldiers disposing of the imperial crown according to their own pleasure. Claudius began his reign by acts of justice and mercy, embellished Rome, and formed a fresh aqueduct for a supply of water. He also went over to Britain, which island was first permanently occupied by his generals.

Claudius afterwards fell into a state of imbecility, and was wholly governed by his wife Messalina, a woman noted for her profligate life. Reports of her conduct at last reaching Claudius, he caused her to be put to death. This emperor died a violent death by the influence of his next wife, whose son, Nero, had been named successor to Claudius, to the exclusion of Britannicus, the rightful heir.



Death of Seneca

NERO.

A.D. 54.

AGRIPPINA, the mother of Nero, having procured the accession of her son, endeavoured to obtain the chief management of public affairs; and had not her baneful influence been counteracted by Seneca the philosopher, and by Burrhus, the new emperor would have been involved in bloodshed and violence.

The first five years of Nero's reign were distinguished by justice and clemency. His mother, enraged at finding her power over him gradually weakened, threatened to inform the soldiers of the way in which Claudius lost his

life, and that she would induce them to aid the claims of Britannicus to the throne. This only served to hasten the death of the prince, whose murder stands first in the long list of crimes that darken the reign of Nero. Among these were the murder of his mother and one of his wives.

In the tenth year of this reign Rome was nearly consumed by a fire, which lasted for six days. Nero is accused of having been the author of the calamity, and it was even reported that he ascended a high tower to witness the flames, where he amused himself with singing the destruction of Troy. From many circumstances it appears to be doubtful whether Nero was guilty of the crime. He caused provisions to be supplied at a very moderate price, had the imperial gardens thrown open to the sufferers, and caused buildings to be erected for their accommodation.

A sufficient portion of guilt, however, rests on Nero in connexion with this event. In order to remove the suspicions of the people, he spread a report that the Christians were the uthors of the fire, and numbers of them were seized and put to death with cruel tortures.

Seneca, having engaged in a conspiracy against the emperor, was ordered to put an end

to his own life. This he effected by opening his veins, and death not speedily following, he plunged into a warm bath and was suffocated. Although a philosopher and a *Stoic*, Seneca was not insensible to the love of wealth, and the luxuries of superb palaces, costly furniture, and gardens.

During the latter part of his reign Nero was occupied in theatrical performances, and in contending for the prizes at public games. He appeared as an actor on the Roman stage, and visited the cities of Greece, where he obtained many crowns of victory in the various contests.

Soon after his return to Rome the legions in Gaul declared against him, and their example was followed by Galba, who commanded in Spain. The senate pronounced sentence of death against Nero, who fled from Rome on hearing of the revolt. He anticipated the execution of the sentence passed upon him, by attempting suicide, and then requiring one of his attendants to put an end to his life. He was only thirty-six years old, and reigned fourteen. During this period the empire enjoyed profound peace; but the Britons, headed by the valiant Boadicea, queen of the Iceni, who inhabited the eastern part of the island (now Norfolk and Suffolk), rose to arms, and

the towns of Colchester and Verulam, together with London itself, were attacked and taken, and the Romans massacred. The general result of valour without rule and discipline, followed the attempt of Boadicea and her allies. The Britons were overpowered by Suetonius, the Roman general, with great slaughter, and the queen destroyed herself by poison.

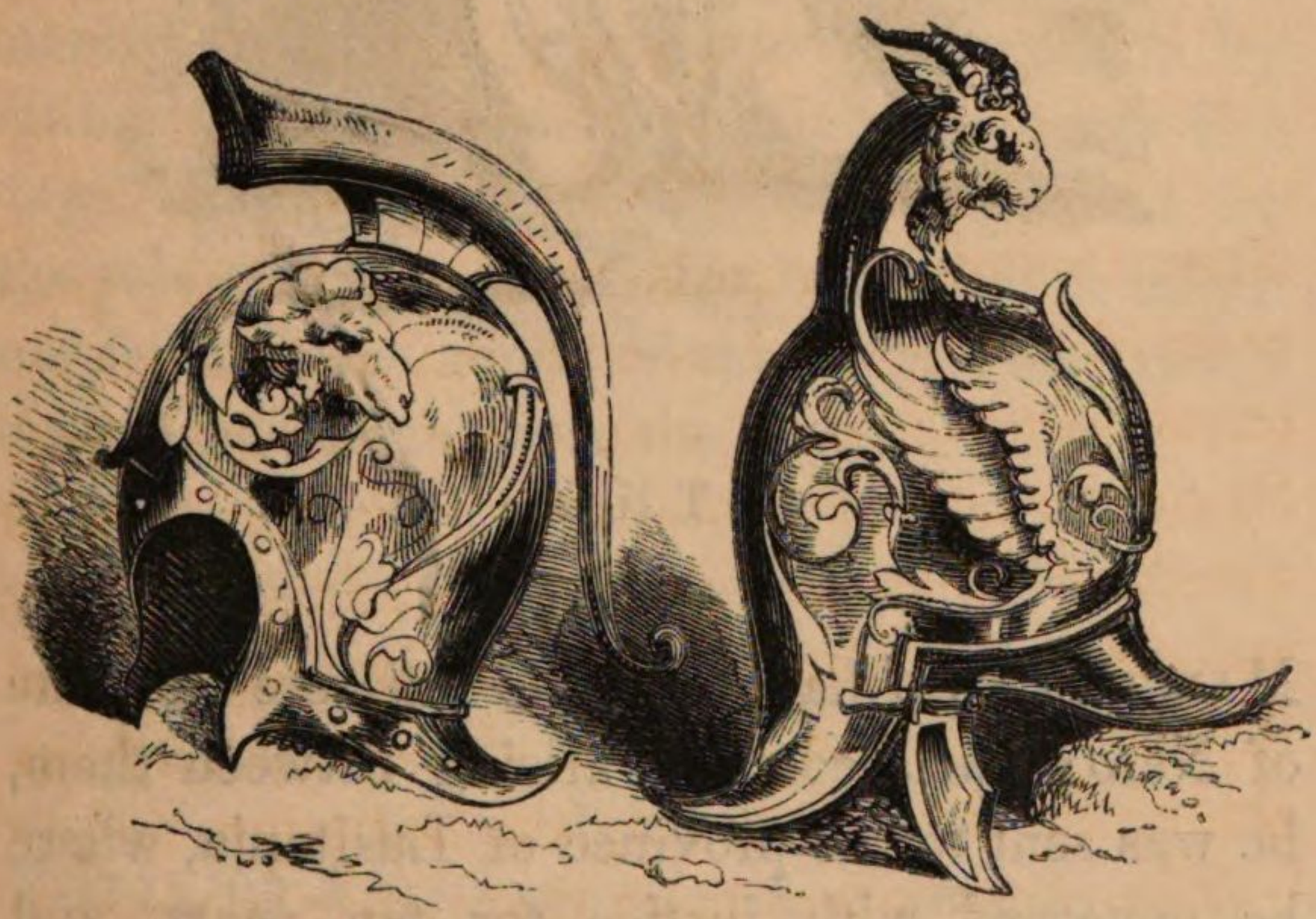
GALBA.

A.D. 68.

THE Prætorian guards at Rome having proclaimed this general as emperor, and the senate acquiescing in their choice, he hastened from Spain to assume his new dignity. Galba exercised great economy in the administration, and endeavoured to restrain the prodigality and licence which had rendered discipline very lax among the soldiers during the last reign.

The emperor was more than seventy years of age when he began to rule; he soon became an object of dislike and ridicule among the people; his favourites were hated, and frequent revolts broke out against him. Some of them were severely punished.

Otho, who had assisted in placing Galba on the throne, expected to be named as his successor; but Galba having adopted another person, Otho formed a conspiracy against him. Galba was put to death by the soldiers after a reign of only seven months.



Roman Helmets.

OTHO.

A.D. 69.

MARCUS OTHO had been the intimate associate of Nero; but a coolness arising between them, he was sent to the province of Lusitania, where he governed with justice for ten years, and afterwards took an active part in placing Galba on the throne.

Otho began his reign by wise and judicious measures. He sought to render himself popular among the soldiery, who were acquiring no

trifling influence in determining the choice of an emperor.

Scarcely was he established on the throne, when he was obliged to march against the Roman general Vitellius, who had been proclaimed emperor by the legions in Germany before the death of Galba. Otho was at first successful, but in a second battle near Mantua his army was completely defeated. When he heard the result of the engagement he refused to make any further attempt to secure the empire, and put an end to his own life by falling on his sword, after reigning ninety-five days. He appears to have been esteemed by the soldiers, who buried his body that it might not fall into the hands of the enemy, and raised a plain monument over the grave.

VITELLIUS.

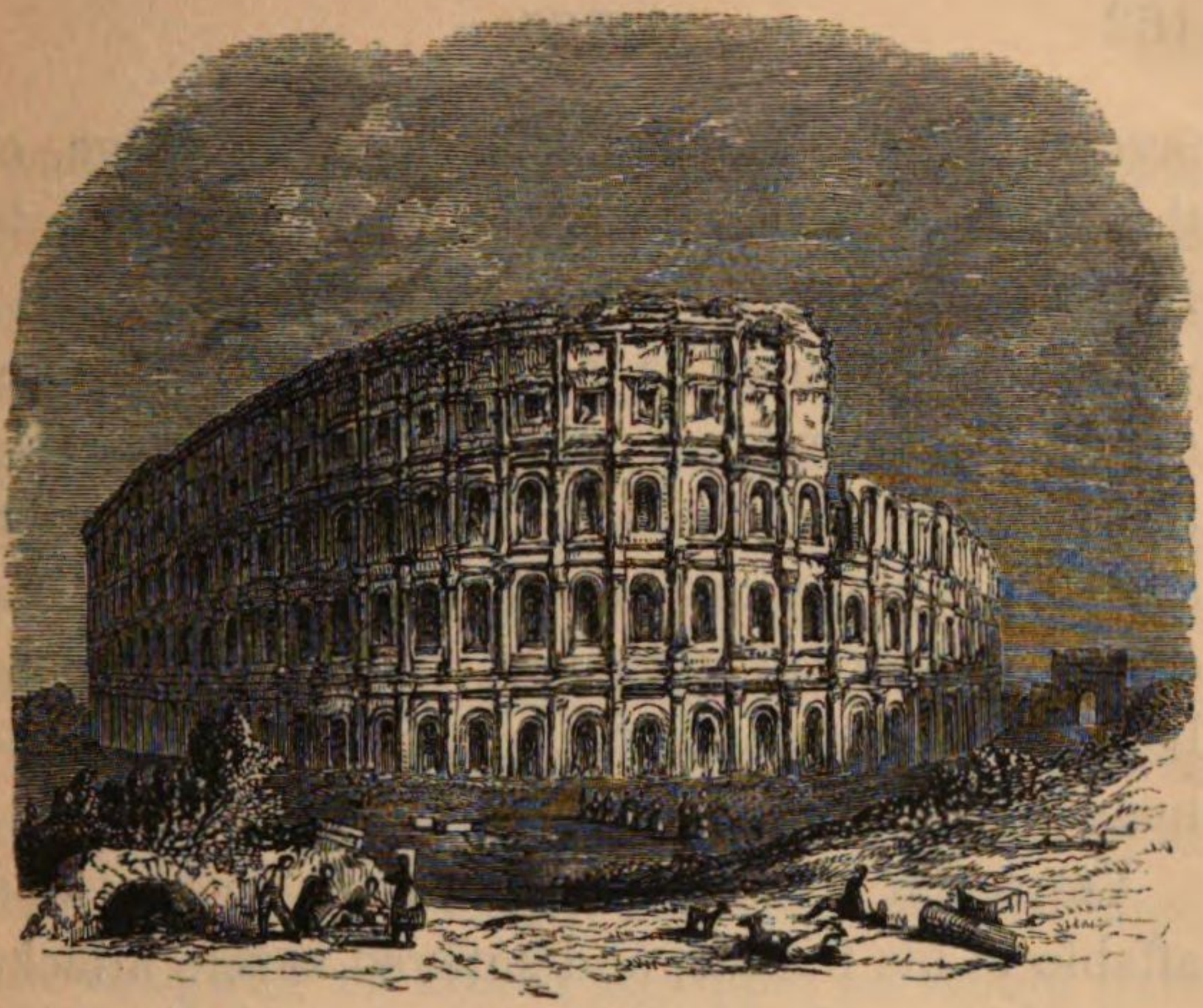
A.D. 69.

VITELLIUS AULUS was a man of effeminate and luxurious habits; he had been in favour with three emperors, Caligula, Claudius, and Nero. After the defeat of Otho the army acknowledged Vitellius as emperor, who then proceeded to Rome.

No sooner had he arrived than Flavius Vespasianus, who was at that time engaged in a war against the people of Judea, was urged by his friends to assume the imperial dignity, and he was proclaimed at Alexandria in Egypt.

The legions generally recognised Vespasian, and the hostile troops entering Rome, Vitellius concealed himself, but was dragged from his hiding-place, and put to death.

Old Walls of Rome.



The Coliseum.

VESPASIAN.

A.D. 70.

A BETTER order of things began under the rule of this prince. He first distinguished himself in the reign of Claudius. Afterwards he went over to Britain, where he obtained great honour. He attended Nero into Greece, but having displeased him by falling asleep during his poetical display, he was banished, and afterwards took the command of the army sent against Judea. In less than two years he subdued the whole country, except Jerusalem, when he was induced by his son Titus and his friends to claim the throne. The army being

favourable to Vespasian, he left the siege of the Jewish capital to Titus, and proceeded to Rome.

His government is highly praised. He restored the privileges of the senate, reformed the courts of justice, set the finances in order, and revived the discipline of the Army. The city was adorned with new buildings; and he began the Amphitheatre, celebrated under the name of the *Coliseum*.

Vespasian was temperate in his habits, and affable to his friends, and suffered severe attacks upon his conduct to pass unpunished. His reign was marked by many military successes; among these were the conquest of Jerusalem by Titus, and the victories of Agricola in Britain.

Vespasian died a natural death in the seventieth year of his age, having reigned ten years.

TITUS.

(A.D. 79.)

THE most virtuous of the emperors who had yet held the Roman government, was the son of Vespasian, and the friend of the young Britannicus, who was poisoned by Nero. Titus

was early remarkable for his handsome person, his vigour, and extraordinary talents. He was commander of the large body of forces assembled for the siege of Jerusalem, in which he distinguished himself as a general and a brave soldier. After a long siege this noted city was taken by storm; more than 600,000 people lost their lives, and the remainder were dispersed over the world.

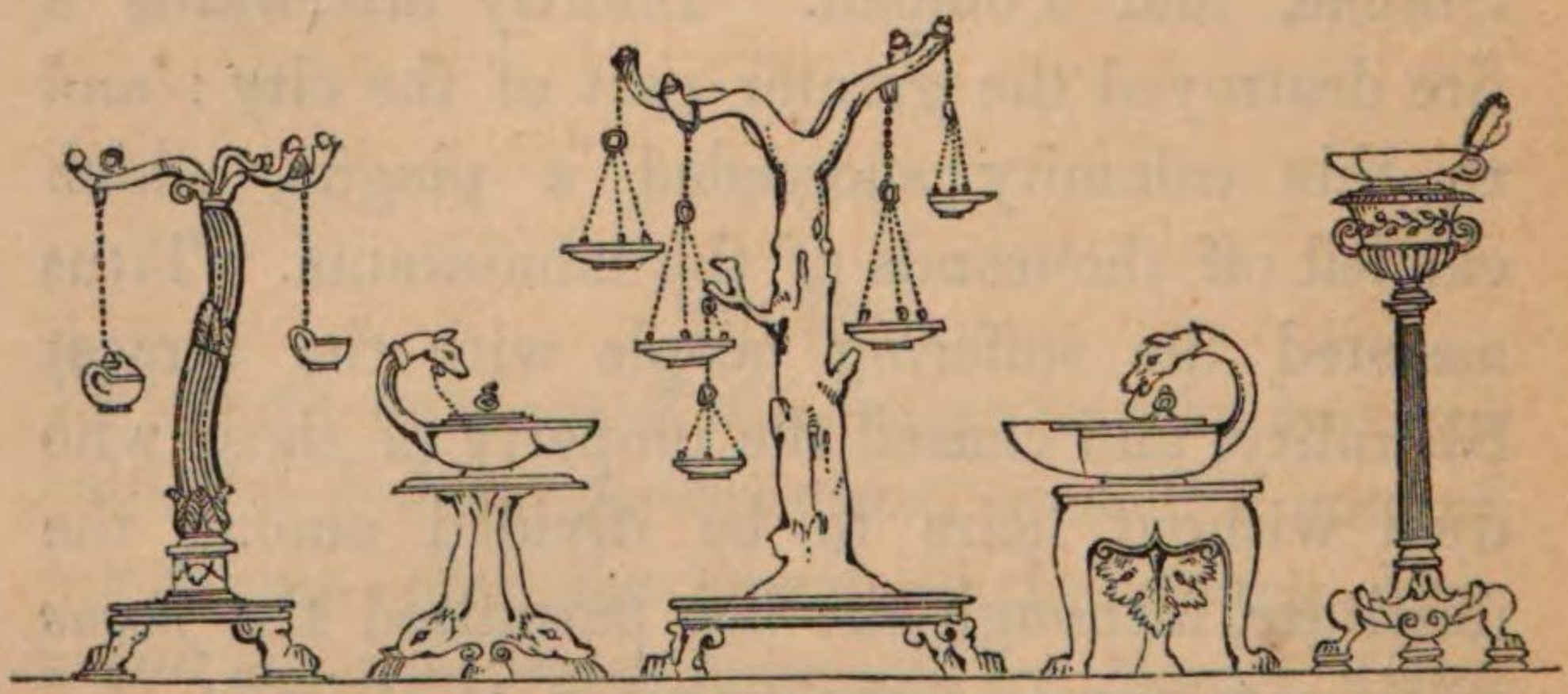
When Titus became emperor, his excellent conduct was the subject of general admiration. Having become deeply attached to Berenice, the daughter of Herod Agrippa, he would have married her; but finding that the proposed match was disagreeable to the Roman people, he sent her, much against her will and his own inclinations, from Rome, whither she had followed him.

During his short reign an eruption of Vesuvius destroyed the towns of Herculaneum, Stabiæ, and Pompeii. Shortly afterwards a fire destroyed the greater part of the city: and to this calamity succeeded a plague, which carried off thousands of the inhabitants. Titus assisted the suffering people with the utmost liberality, and caused the property of those who died without heirs to be divided among the destitute, although the law permitted the *fiscus* or private purse of the emperor, to claim it.

Titus severely punished all false accusers; but he so much disliked the punishment of death, that he was accustomed to say, he would rather die than cause the death of others. This, however, can only be understood as regarding civil offences, for the conqueror of Judea was very far from guiltless of taking away life.

Titus having retired to his paternal estate, to recover his impaired health, was soon after attacked by fever, and died there. His brother Domitian, who had gone with him, was suspected of causing his death by advising improper remedies. Domitian was engaged in more than one conspiracy against Titus, who generously forgave him.

The consternation of the Roman people was general on hearing that the emperor had expired; and no pleasing expectations were entertained with regard to his successor.



Lamps.

DOMITIAN.

A.D. 81.

DOMITIAN, the younger son of Vespasian, and the last of the twelve Cæsars, succeeded to the empire on the death of his brother Titus. His reign was begun with some appearance of justice and moderation, and an affectation of great zeal for the improvement of public morals, which proved only dissimulation.

Suspicion and cowardice marked his character, and rendered him fearful of every man who was distinguished by merit or popularity. The lives of all around him were endangered by his cruelty, while the opulent citizens were put to

death upon false pretences, in order to seize upon their riches. He is also said to have spent whole hours in hunting and killing flies. Men of letters, among whom was Epictetus, were driven from Rome; but the poets Martial and Statius have debased their genius by condescending to flatter the tyrant.

During this reign a persecution of the Jews took place, in which the Christians were involved, the Romans at that period confounding them with the former people.

At length a conspiracy was formed among the officers of Domitian's guards and others, and he was put to death by them in his own apartment, after an ineffectual struggle with the conspirators.

In this reign the Roman general Agricola completed the conquest of Britain, as far as the Forth and the Clyde. The narrow space of land between these two rivers, in length about forty miles, was defended by a line of forts; and in the reign of a succeeding emperor a rampart of turf, on a stone foundation, rendered the barrier yet more effectual against the wild natives of the highland mountains. Caledonia, the country that extended northward of Agricola's fortification, was never conquered by the Roman arms.

For the first time a fleet sailed round the island, under command of the able and enterprising Agrippa. So little skilled were these conquering people in maritime affairs, that it is probable the navigation of the four seas of Britain was then as much thought of as a voyage of discovery to the North or South Pole in the present times.

THE FIVE GOOD EMPERORS.

NERVA.—A.D. 96.

On the assassination of Domitian, Nerva was chosen emperor, chiefly through the influence of the commander of the Prætorian guards. He was already accustomed to public affairs, having been placed in offices of trust by Vespasian and Titus.

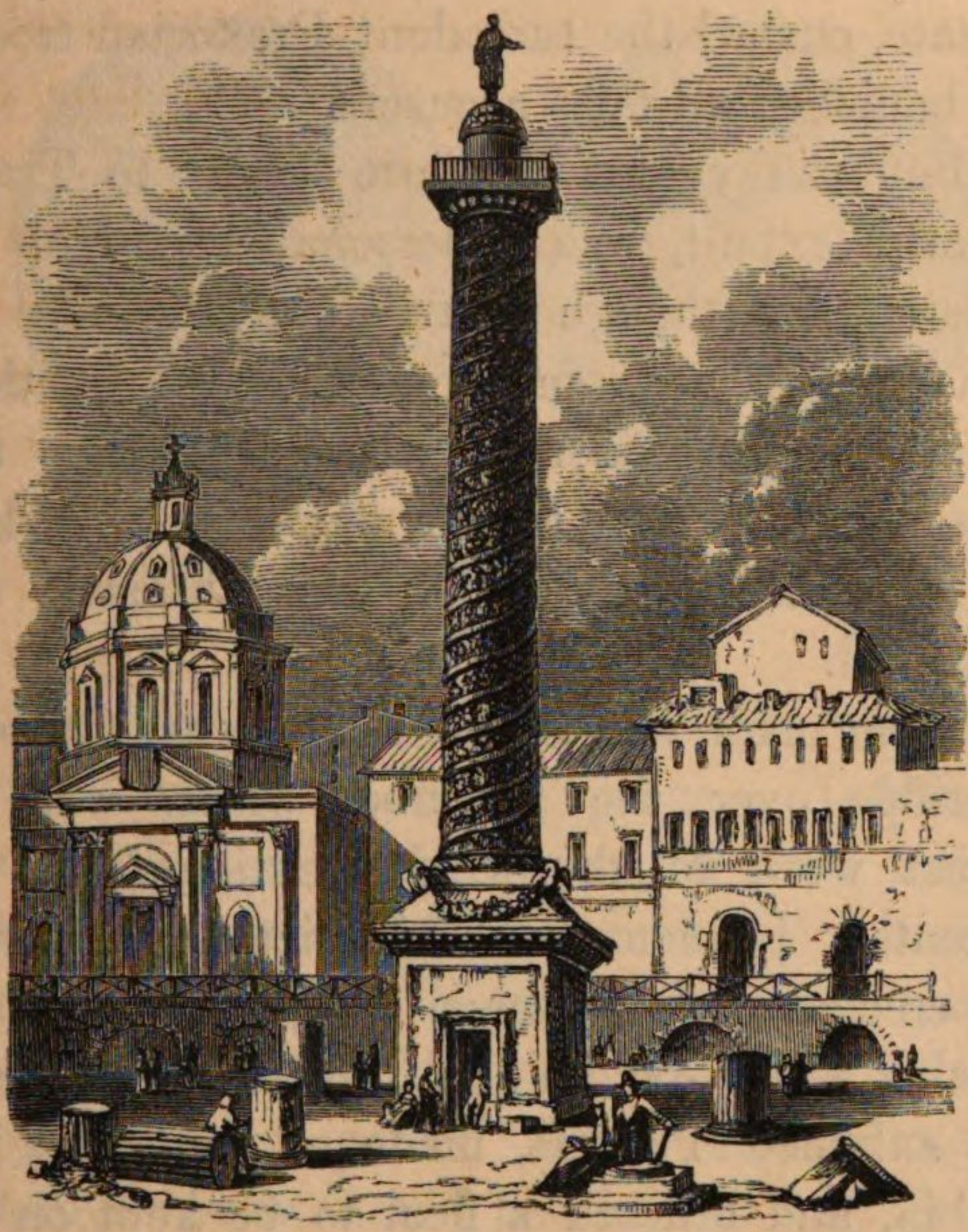
Historians unite in praising the mild and just conduct of this virtuous prince. Under his government the Christians were unmolested, exiles were recalled from banishment, and the people relieved from oppressive taxes.

But Nerva's gentle and impartial rule was far from satisfying the Prætorian guards, who had been allowed by his predecessor to indulge in every kind of excess. These imperious

soldiers compelled the emperor to deliver up two officers with whom they had been displeased, and whom they put to death.

Nerva, finding that he could not repress the haughty spirit of his own guard, resolved to transfer the government of the Roman empire to a successor possessed of greater energy both of mind and body than himself, and fixed his choice on Trajan, whom he associated with him in the government during the remainder of his short reign.

Landing from Bridge of Boats.



Trajan's Column, at Rome.

TRAJAN.

A.D. 98.

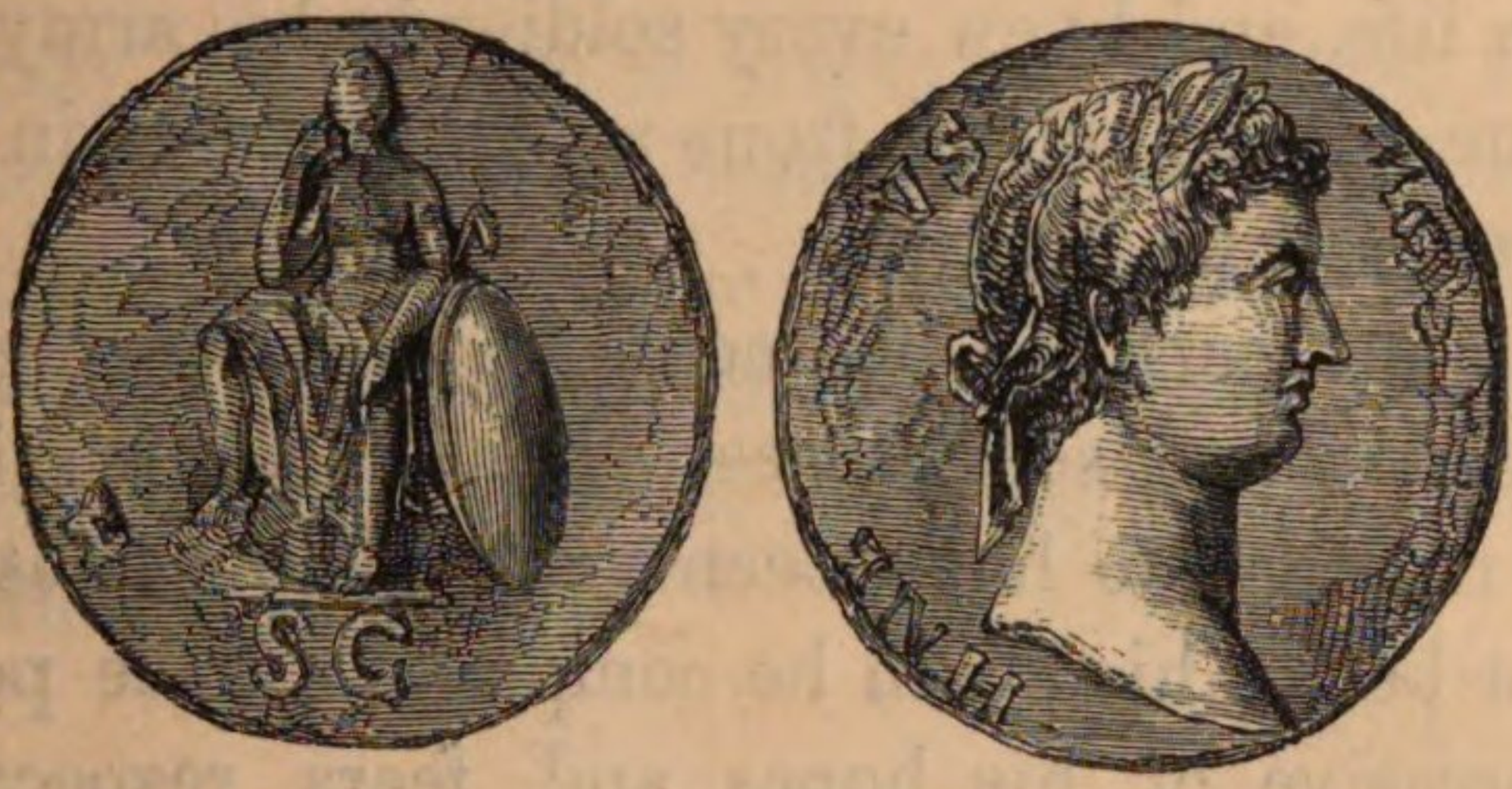
On the death of Nerva, Trajan became master of the Roman empire. The people received him with the greatest demonstrations of joy when he arrived at Rome, and he soon gave proofs that he merited his high station. He placed honest and distinguished men in offices

of state, curbed the turbulent Prætorian troops, and banished all false accusers.

Pliny the younger, whose letters to Trajan are still extant, was a personal friend of the emperor. Although unfriendly towards the Christians, Pliny inquired concerning them during his proconsulship in Bithynia, and recommended them to the emperor, by whom the persecution, begun by Pliny himself, was mitigated.

Trajan made war upon the Dacians, and built a bridge over the Danube, which was the largest work of the kind mentioned by the ancients. In memory of his victories a column was erected in the *Forum Trajani*, which still remains, a fine example of Roman art. Trajan also subdued Parthia, made an incursion into Arabia, and ordered a fleet to be kept on the Red Sea. While in the East he fell ill, and was on his return to Rome, when he expired at a town in Cilicia.

Trajan was one of the greatest Roman emperors. The memory of his name lasted for centuries; and the senators were accustomed long afterwards to receive their new sovereigns with the acclamation: "Be happier than Augustus, and better than Trajan."



HADRIAN.

A.D. 117.

During the reign of this emperor the people enjoyed nearly an entire peace. Hadrian is remarkable for having travelled over a great part of his extensive dominions, by which he was able to observe the mode in which justice was administered in the provinces, and to correct many abuses of power. Hadrian used to say that an emperor should be like the sun, visiting by turns every region of the earth.

This emperor visited Britain, and constructed a wall, or rampart of earth, from the Solway Frith to the mouth of the river Tyne, a little to the south of that part of the island where a more substantial wall was afterwards raised by Severus, to protect the Britons from the Caledonians.

Hadrian was remarkable for his great powers of memory: he recollected every incident of his

own life, and knew every soldier in his army by name. He suffered from severe diseases in the latter part of his life.

In his personal character he had many good qualities, and some vices. His ruling passions are recorded to have been vanity and curiosity. Just before his death he composed a little poem expressive of his hopes and fears respecting a future state of existence. This piece was the origin of Pope's well-known ode, "Vital Spark," &c.

THE TWO ANTONINES.

A.D. 138.

For a period of forty-five years the Roman world was governed by Antoninus Pius and his successor Marcus Aurelius with an invariable spirit of wisdom and virtue. It has even been asserted "that their united reigns are perhaps the only period of history in which the happiness of a great people was the sole object of government." The former of these emperors, Antoninus Pius, maintained the same simple character of his early life, mingling with his friends like one of the same rank, and using his unlimited power more like a private citizen entrusted with it by his fellow countrymen, than as the master of a

mighty empire. It is deserving of notice, that, although the emperor bestowed salaries and other distinctions on merit, he declared that "nothing was more disgraceful, nor more cruel, *than for a man to feed on public property, who had done nothing to improve it.*"

MARCUS ANTONINUS

Was early remarkable for learning and virtue. At the age of twelve years he adopted the system of the Stoic philosophers, which taught men to submit their passions to reason, and to consider virtue the only good, and vice the only evil. Although severe towards himself, he was lenient in his judgment of others, and benevolent to every one. War he detested; but he was ever ready to take arms for just defence, and readily undertook the toil of eight winter campaigns on the banks of the Danube. The severity of the cold in that inclement season

injured his health so completely, that he soon after expired.

So highly was this prince esteemed by the Roman people, that many persons preserved his image among their household gods.

The mild Antoninus Pius was nevertheless a patron of the savage amusements of the Coliseum. He filled the amphitheatre with wild animals from different countries; and on one occasion a hundred lions were let loose in the arena. Agriculture and commerce were held in very low estimation by the inhabitants of the Roman capital; the greater part appear to have lived in habitual idleness. All the useful arts of life were exercised by slaves or freedmen, and to them also was the cultivation of the land consigned. Spinning and weaving were the constant occupation of the women.

COMMODUS.

A.D. 180.

NOTWITHSTANDING his own excellent government, the philosophical Marcus inflicted serious evils upon the empire, by the too great indulgence which he allowed to his son and successor, Commodus, whose monstrous vices formed a

gloomy contrast to the many virtues of his father.

In youth the new emperor had been of a weak and timid disposition, the easy prey of flatterers, who soon effaced from his mind the lessons of wisdom and virtue taught him by those men of learning and integrity whom his father had placed around him.

At the age of fourteen Commodus was admitted to a share of the supreme power by his father, who lived but four years after; long enough to repent having so soon set free this unpromising youth from the needful restraint of authority.

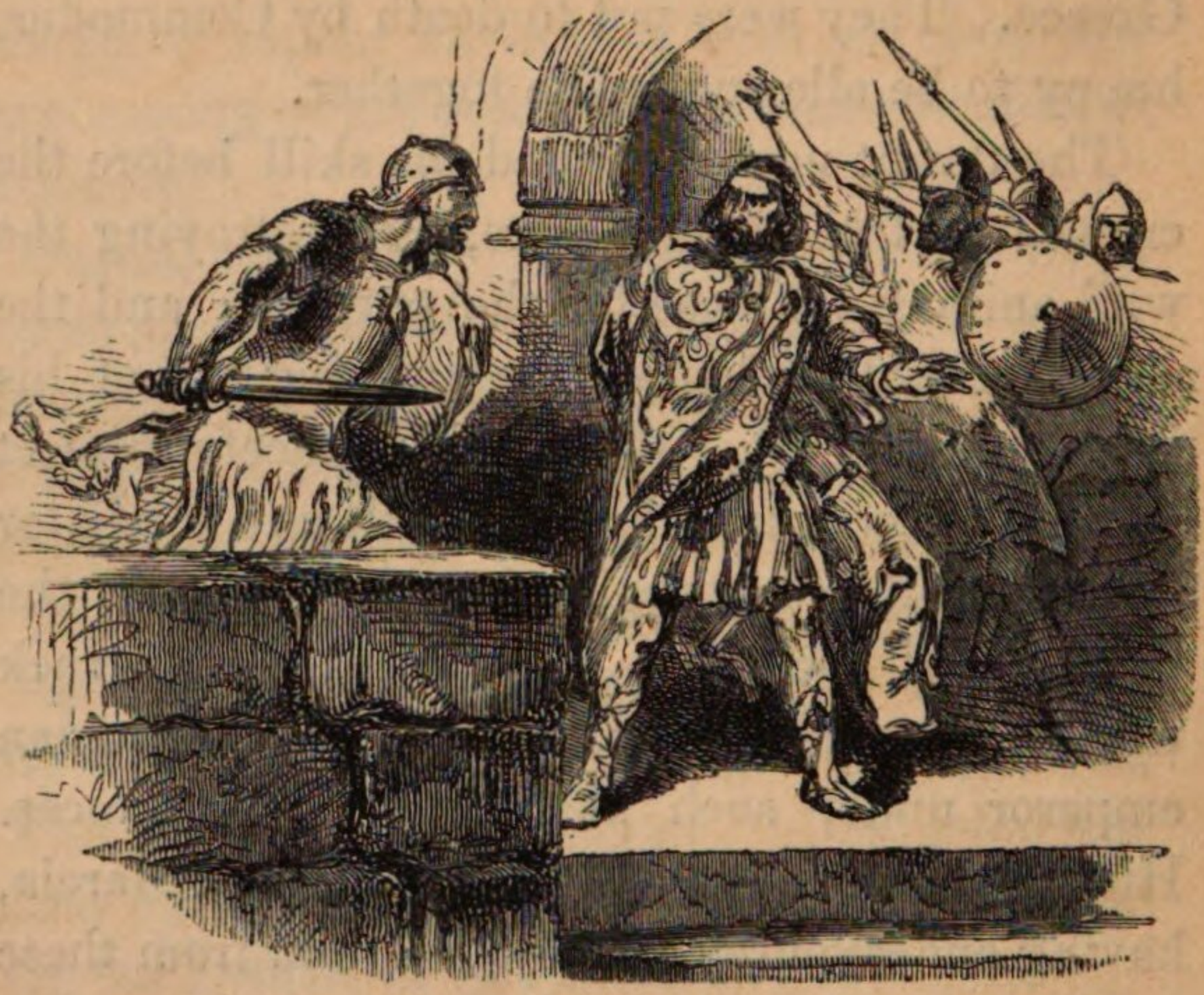
During the first few years of his reign Commodus retained the counsellors to whom Marcus had recommended him. While he was revelling in luxury a conspiracy was formed against his life by his sister and other inmates of the palace. One evening, as he passed through a dark passage, an assassin rushed upon him with a drawn sword, exclaiming in a loud voice, "The senate sends you this!" The man was seized by the guards, and at once declared who were the authors of the conspiracy.

But the words had made on the mind of Commodus an impression too deep to be effaced; and he now entertained both fear and hatred of the

whole senate. Many were the victims of his suspicions and cruelty; among these were two brothers, whose fraternal love rendered them remarkable. Their studies, their pursuits, their occupations and their pleasures, were ever alike. They enjoyed a large estate, yet never admitted the idea of a separate interest; and fragments yet remain of a treatise of their joint composition. The two Antonines highly valued them, raised both to the consulship in the same year, and afterwards united them in the government of Greece. They were put to death by Commodus, happy to be allowed to die together.

The tyrant now displayed his skill before the crowds at the amphitheatre, by destroying the wild animals let loose for the purpose; and the servile crowd applauded the unerring aim of his javelin or his dart. His next disgraceful project for renown, was to exhibit himself as a gladiator before the Roman people: but the lowest of the throng that flocked to the theatre were struck with shame and disgust at the sight of a Roman emperor under such shameless circumstances. His officers, and a female favourite named Marcia, having endeavoured to dissuade him from these public exhibitions, he marked them for execution on a scroll, which fell into the hands of the favourite. Alarmed for her safety, Marcia and

her associates determined to prevent their own destruction. On the return of Commodus from hunting, she presented him with a draught of poisoned wine; he soon fell into a deep sleep, when a wrestler by profession was sent into his chamber, who strangled him without resistance. From the beginning of this reign the decline of the Roman empire is sufficiently evident.



PERTINAX, TO SEVERUS.

A.D. 193.

PERTINAX was the son of a freedman who dealt in charcoal, an important article of fuel even at the present time in Italy. Pertinax gradually rose by his own efforts to the rank of a commander in the army, and obtained also a place in the senate.

After the death of Commodus the conspirators offered Pertinax the empire, which at first he refused, but afterwards accepted. The new emperor attempted to restore the discipline of the army, and thus lost the affections of the soldiers, who had been accustomed to licence under

their former ruler. Pertinax was greatly valued by the senate and the people; but the turbulent Prætorian guards, encouraged by a traitor, conspired against him, and two or three hundred of them boldly marched at noon day to the palace with arms in their hands. The friends of Pertinax urged him to conceal himself till the tumult had passed; but he refused to adopt a measure that, he said, was unworthy his rank. He appeared before the mutineers, and calmly remonstrated with them, and had even made some impression, when a soldier, a German by birth, threw a spear and wounded the emperor, who was then put to death by the other ruffians.

THE ROMAN EMPIRE SOLD BY AUCTION.

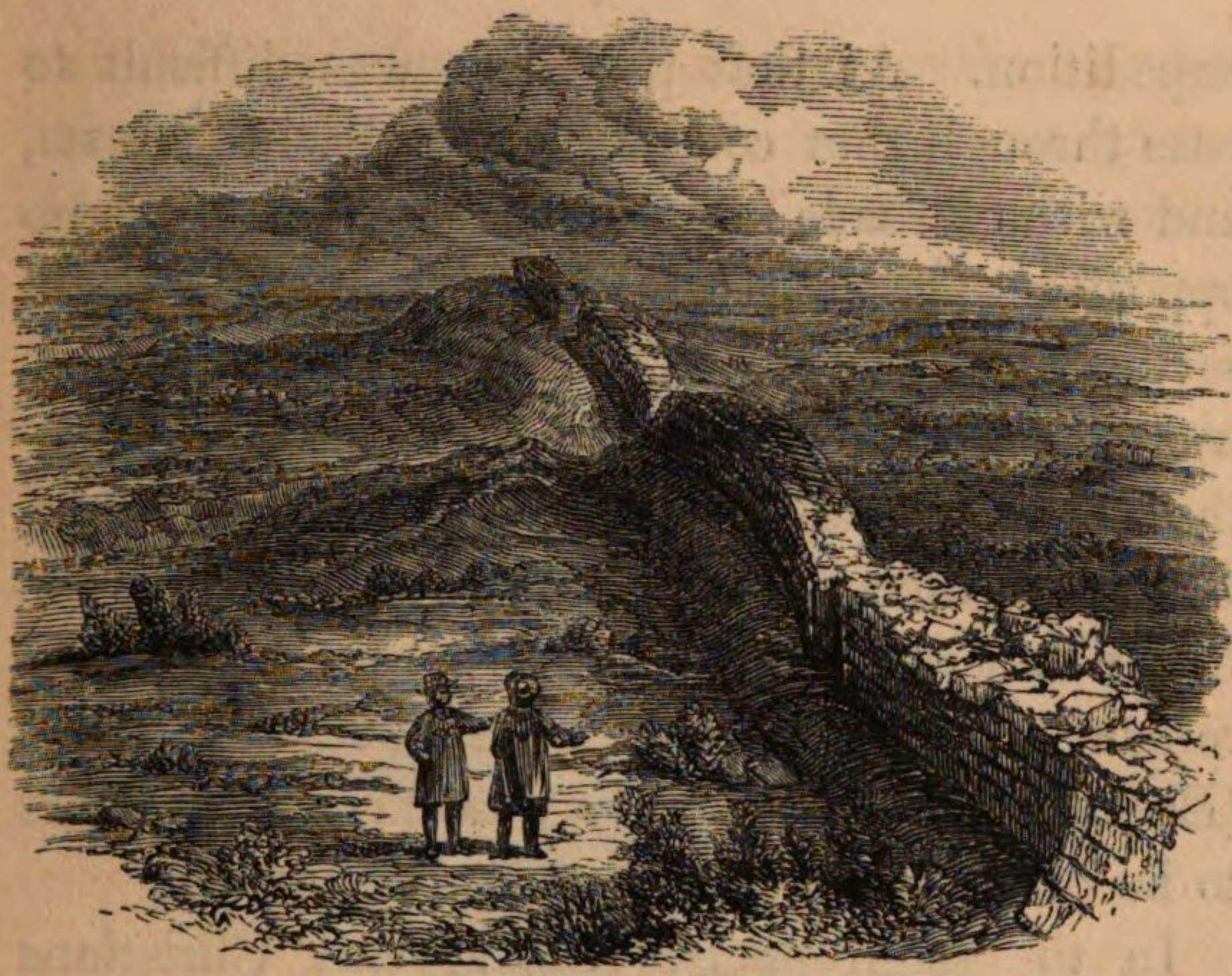
THE Prætorian bands, whose power had thus been manifested, now proclaimed that the Roman empire was to be disposed of to the highest bidder. This insolent offer spread shame and indignation throughout the city. The news reached the ears of Didius Julianus, a senator, who was enormously rich. His family easily convinced the vain man that he deserved the throne. He hastened to the camp, where the father-in-law of the murdered Pertinax was in treaty

with the guards, and began to bid against him from the foot of the rampart. The offer of two hundred pounds sterling to each soldier won the prize for Didius; the gates of the camp were thrown open to the purchaser, he was proclaimed emperor, and received the oath of allegiance from the soldiers, who stipulated that he should not punish the other competitor. The conditions of sale were next to be fulfilled. They placed the new emperor in the centre of their ranks,

surrounded him with their shields, and conducted him through the deserted streets of Rome in close order of battle. The senate was commanded to assemble. The obsequious members of that once dignified and important

body congratulated themselves on their felicity, and conferred upon Didius the imperial power. Being conducted to the palace, a magnificent feast was ordered, and he amused himself with dice to a very late hour. But the Roman generals refused to acknowledge the emperor of the Prætorians. Severus, the chief commander in Illyricum, was proclaimed Augustus by his troops, and advanced without opposition to Rome, the towns and garrisons declaring for him. The guards forsook Didius, the senate pronounced his abdication, and a party of soldiers, forcing their way into the palace, put an end to the unfortunate old man, though he offered to renounce the empire. He reigned only sixty-six days.

Charge of Infantry.



Roman Wall of Severus.

SEPTIMUS SEVERUS

Was one of the most distinguished Roman emperors. Plain and simple in his habits, he sought and rewarded merit. He loved justice; but he punished with a severity that amounted to cruelty.

In the year A.D. 208, the emperor, with his two sons, Geta and Caracalla, passed over to Britain, in order to reduce the Caledonians and other northern tribes to obedience. Geta remained in the southern part of the island, while Severus, with his son Caracalla, took the command of the army prepared for the northern

expedition. At that period it was difficult to pass through that country, covered with forests, and without roads; and though they met with no opposition from the natives, the Romans suffered severely, and the loss of men owing to privations was very great. Severus attempted to secure the limits of his territory by a great rampart, which is called the wall of Severus, between the Clyde and the Forth. Severus did not live to return to his capital. He died at York (Eboracum), and his body was carried to Rome to be placed in the tomb of the Antonines.

In the reign of Severus several Christians were employed in offices connected with the court. The ancient laws against them were suspended; and the provincial governors were satisfied to accept a yearly present from their churches as the reward of their forbearance. Trifling subjects of controversy occupied this period of rest from the terrors of persecution. The leaders of the Christian assemblies in Asia and Italy entered into serious disputes concerning the precise time for celebrating Easter, which was deemed an affair of great importance. The increase of converts to the new faith at length attracted the notice of Severus, who published an edict to arrest its progress. After the death of that emperor the Christians enjoyed

a calm. Hitherto they had been obliged to hold their assemblies for religious worship in private dwellings, in sequestered places, and even in the caves of the earth. Now they were allowed to build edifices for public worship, to purchase land even at Rome, and to make a public election of their ministers.

Statue of Roman Soldier, found in the Wall of Severus.

CARACALLA AND GETA.

A.D. 211.

SEVERUS left his two sons joint successors to the throne. These youths were remarkable, from a very early age, for a fixed antipathy to each other. The aversion increased with years, and, being encouraged by their artful favourites, broke out into serious rivalry even in the lifetime of their father. Caracalla had conspired against his parent, and even lifted up his sword to kill him, during his stay in Britain. Severus forgave the unnatural attempt; but his mind and health sustained a shock, which not long after caused

his death. Rome now fell under the power of two emperors, and they were in opposition to each other. On taking possession of the palace, they divided it between them; each had his own guards to protect him as from an enemy.

Their mother Julia, a woman remarkable for her courage and firmness, in vain attempted to render the brothers more friendly. At length it was proposed to divide the empire, since no hope of a reconciliation could be entertained. The artful Caracalla pretended to yield to his mother's tears and entreaties that the brothers should meet in her apartment. While they were conversing, several armed men, who had concealed themselves in the chamber, suddenly rushed upon the unfortunate Geta, and killed him in the arms of his mother.

Caracalla was now sole emperor; but never more did he know peace. Business, pleasure, flattery, were all unable to stifle his remorse. He confessed, in the anguish of his heart, that he often fancied the angry forms of his father and his brother rising into life to reproach and threaten him. Bloodshed and cruelty marked the remainder of his reign; and he was stabbed by one of his soldiers during the march of his troops while in one of the provinces of the East.

ELAGABALUS.

A.D. 218.

A SYRIAN youth was next raised to the throne, chiefly through the intrigues of his female relations, who were connected with the mother of Caracalla. The new emperor had been appointed high priest of the sun at Emesa in Phœnicia, where a large body of troops had been stationed for the winter. Sums of money were lavished upon the soldiers, and it was even declared that he was the son of Caracalla. The

Prætorians, who had at first favoured the pretensions of one of their own officers, were persuaded to join in placing this effeminate youth of fourteen at the head of the Roman government.

Rome now received an addition to the ancient heathen deities. A magnificent temple was raised to the honour of the Syrian idol, which was a large black stone reputed to have fallen from heaven. Shameless scenes of vice and cruelty marked the short reign of Elagabalus. Among other extravagances, he made his horse consul, and covered his own shoes with precious stones, to draw the admiration of the people as he walked: he was the first Roman who wore a dress of silk. He was murdered by the Prætorians, who threw his body into the Tiber.

ALEXANDER SEVERUS.—MAXIMIN AND THE GORDIANS.

A.D. 222—238.

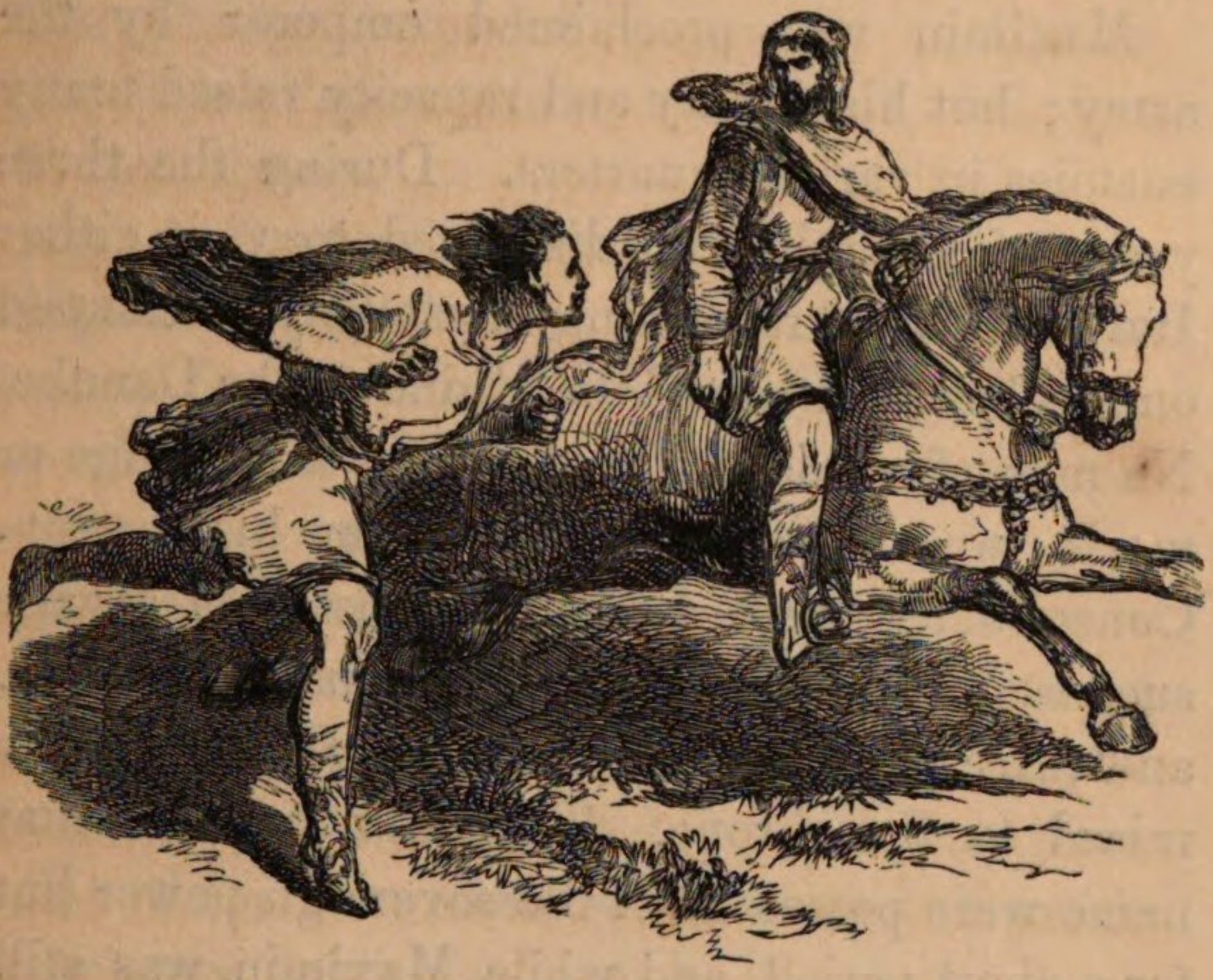
THE dissolute tyrant Elagabalus was persuaded to adopt his youthful relation Alexander for his successor. Superior in morals and in abilities to the emperor, he gained the respect and affection of the people, and soon became a rival.

Upon his succeeding to the supreme power the young emperor restored the freedom and dignity of the senate. The provinces were relieved from oppressive taxes, and flourished in peace and prosperity; while the people generally, sensible of their improved condition, manifested their gratitude to their benefactor.

MAXIMIN.

On the return of the first Severus from an expedition to the East, he halted to celebrate games in honour of his son's birth-day, on which occasion the Thracians, in whose country he was, flocked to the spectacle. A young peasant of gigantic figure earnestly begged that he might contend for the prize of wrestling. But lest the pride of Roman soldiers should be disgraced by a defeat, he was matched with the stoutest followers of the camp, sixteen of whom he successively overcame. He received some trifling reward, and permission to enlist in the troops. The next day the Thracian was seen among the recruits, dancing and exulting after the manner of his country. On seeing the emperor, he ran up to him, and followed his

horse for a long time at a very rapid pace. Severus, surprised, demanded if he were disposed



to wrestle after his race. "Most willingly, sir," said the peasant; and with ease he overthrew seven of the most powerful men in the army. He was rewarded with a gold collar, and ordered to serve in the horse guards which always attended on the person of the emperor.

Alexander Severus gave him the command of a new legion raised in Pannonia, with which he followed the emperor in his war against the German tribes. While encamped on the banks of the Rhine, he conspired against him; and a party of the troops, headed by a tribune, broke

into the tent of the unsuspecting Severus, and put an end to his life.

Maximin was proclaimed emperor by the army; but his cruelty and rapacity raised many enemies in various quarters. During the three years of his reign he disdained to visit either Italy or Rome, remaining constantly encamped on the banks either of the Rhine or the Danube. No man of noble birth, or of any knowledge or merit, was suffered to come near his person. Conspiracies were formed against this savage successor of the wise and virtuous Alexander, and three persons of the name of Gordian were raised to the throne. The first two of that name were possessed of the sovereign power but for a short period, and while Maximin was still alive. After the soldiers became weary of their warlike chief, he was put to death, and the third Gordian enjoyed a short but prosperous reign, which ended in his assassination.

MARCUS PHILIPPUS.

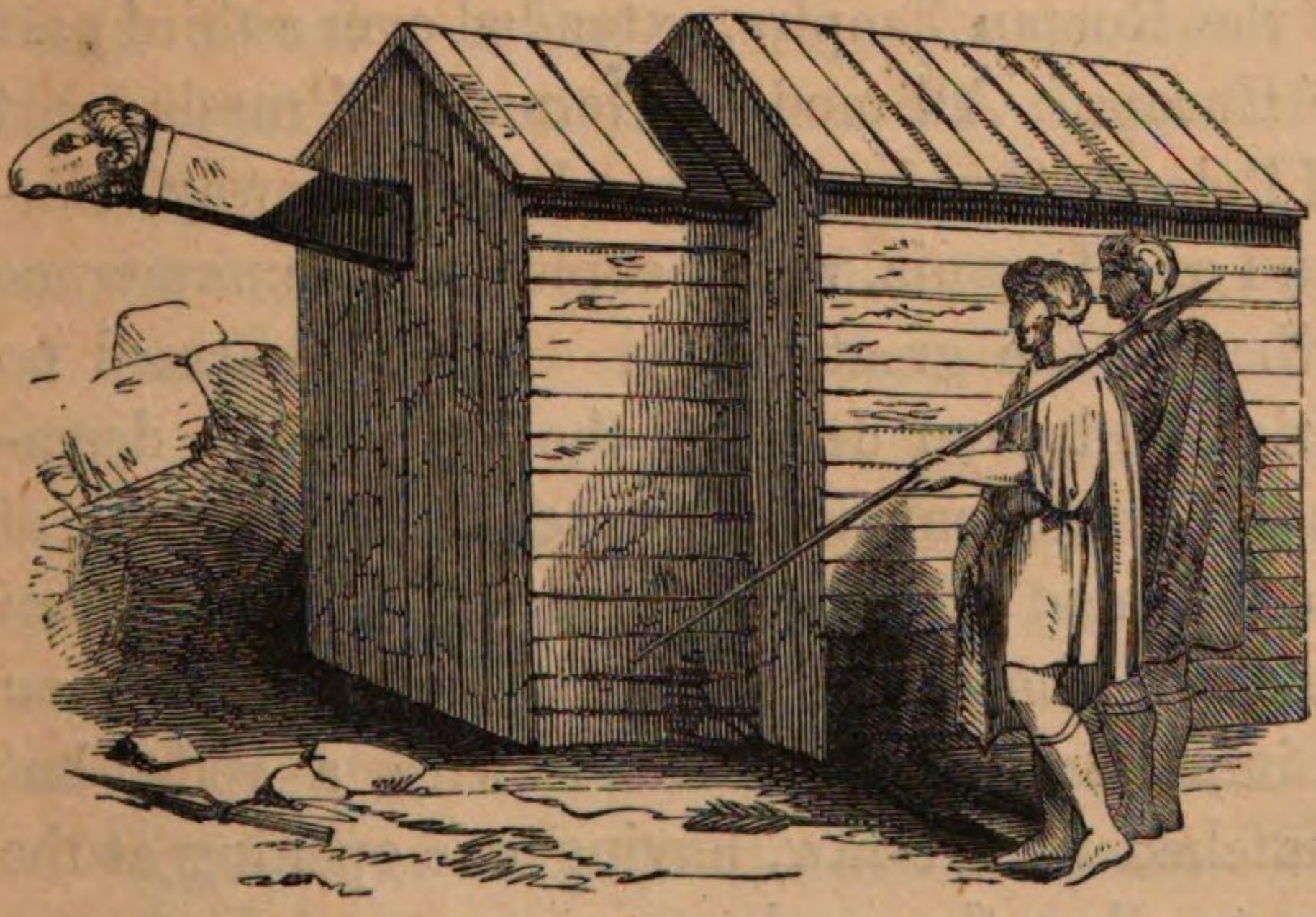
A.D. 244—249.

A SYRIAN and a Goth had already been placed on the throne of the Cæsars; an Arab, by name Philippus, an officer in the army of Gordian,

was now the choice of the troops, to which the senate gave assent. The death of Gordian, which Philip pretended to ascribe to illness, occurred in Persia, where he was at that time with the legions.

Having finished the war with the Persians, Philip came to Rome. In this reign the thousandth anniversary of the building of Rome was celebrated. Games and shows amused the people for several days.

But the power of Rome was now beginning to decline. The provinces were defended by troops levied from mercenary and barbarian tribes; and the frontiers were menaced by the numerous hordes of northern races, which poured down on the rich and fertile lands of Italy.



Battering-ram.

German Hostages.

THE ANCIENT GERMANS.

ANCIENT Germany, whence so many hostile nations issued, and overran the finest provinces of the Roman Empire, extended over a third part of Europe. All modern Germany, Prussia, part of Poland, Sweden, Denmark and Norway, Finland and Livonia, were peopled by the numerous tribes of one great nation. They possessed no cities, and even despised the arts of life, deeming the conveniences of architecture means of confinement rather than security. The German covered himself in winter with the skin of an animal, and was satisfied with a rude hut thatched with straw, having one opening at the top to allow the smoke to escape.

The objects of religious worship were the sun and moon, the fire and the earth; their only temples were dark and gloomy woods.

In the reign of Marcus Antoninus a formidable incursion of these tribes took place, which required all the firmness of the emperor to resist. The barbarians were subdued after a long struggle; they were driven back from their own bank of the Danube, and the finest of their young men were delivered up as hostages, and sent away to Britain.

DECIUS

(A.D. 249.)

HAD been but a few months the successor of Philip, when he was summoned to the banks of the Danube by an incursion of the Goths. This is the first important occasion in which mention is made in history of this formidable people, who afterwards broke the Roman power, and reigned in Gaul, Spain, and Italy. After devastating the country, which no longer afforded subsistence to the Gothic army, the leaders would gladly have purchased a safe retreat by a surrender of their prisoners and spoils. But Decius refused to come to any terms, and the

enemy were too brave to submit to slavery. The conflict that followed was terrible. In the front of the Gothic troops was a morass; the first two bodies of their forces were repulsed; the third prepared to dispute the passage of the morass, which the Roman rashly attempted. The place was full of moisture, sinking under the feet of those that stood, and slippery to those who advanced. Heavy with armour, the soldiers could not, in this condition, wield their javelins. The Goths, accustomed to these bogs, could brandish their long spears, and wound at a distance. In this morass the Roman army perished; and Decius lost his life; nor was his body ever found.

Valerian treated as a Slave.

GALLUS, VALERIAN, GALLIENUS.

A.D. 251—260.

THE defeat of Decius, and the terms on which peace was made, began to manifest the weakness of the Roman Empire. The victorious Goths were suffered to retain the spoils they had acquired; their camp was supplied with everything that could appease them and hasten their departure; they were even offered a large sum of gold, upon condition that they should never more infest the Roman territories by their incursions.

New swarms of barbarians, encouraged by the success of the late events, spread destruction

over Illyria, and the terror reached even to the imperial city. A successful battle drove them again beyond the Danube for a time.

In the reign of Valerian, a wise and prudent monarch, the Franks, the Alemanni, the Goths, and the Persians, were the most formidable foes of the weakened and declining empire.

Sapor, King of Persia, taking advantage of the disasters that had befallen the Romans, advanced beyond their eastern frontier, and ravaged the country on either side of the Euphrates.

Valerian marched his army to encounter the Persian monarch; the battle took place near Edessa. By the treachery of a chief officer in his army, Valerian was betrayed into a situation in which neither skill nor valour could avail. The Romans vainly endeavoured to cut their way through the Persians who surrounded them. A large sum of money was offered to obtain the power of retreating. It was disdainfully rejected. But the Persians detained the deputies, and, advancing to the Roman rampart, insisted on an interview with the emperor. The unfortunate Valerian was induced to trust his life to the enemy, and was made a prisoner. The troops laid down their arms. In order to gain the favour of his conqueror, Valerian basely betrayed

his own country, and conducted Sapor to Antioch, which was taken and destroyed. Valerian was nevertheless treated as a slave, dragged about after Sapor, dressed in the imperial purple. He soon sank under the grief and shame of his situation, and his body, after death, was flayed, the skin stuffed with straw, and set up in a Persian temple as a trophy.

Of Gallienus it must be noted, that while the fate of Valerian on being taken prisoner was lamented by Rome, his son manifested the utmost indifference, and made no attempt to rescue him from his ignominious servitude.

PALMYRA.

PALMYRA, Tadmor, or "the City of Palms," as both names signify, was a very ancient city, situated in a fertile spot, or *oasis*, in the desert of Syria, in the line with the coast and the region of Persia, Mesopotamia, and India. It must have been known to the caravans from very early times as a convenient resting-place, being well supplied with wholesome water, and sheltered by hills on two sides. In the 13th chapter of the second book of Chronicles it is

recorded that "Solomon built Tadmor in the wilderness;" and here was established a mart for the rich produce of the East; and through Palmyra the Romans received the luxuries of India. It has been in ruins for many centuries, but in that state has been an object of great interest to modern travellers. It is inhabited by a small tribe of Arabs, who dwell within the great temple.

ODENATHUS

Was one of the noblest senators of Palmyra. In the reign of Sapor, King of Persia, Odenathus sent that monarch a present of great value, borne by a long train of camels, laden with merchandise of the most costly description. This rich offering was accompanied with a respectful letter.

The proud Persian was displeased, and demanded, "Who is this Odenathus, that he presumes to write to his lord? If he hopes to escape punishment, let him fall at our feet with his hands behind him: but if this is not done, I will heap destruction upon his family and his country." He then ordered the costly present to be cast into the Euphrates.

The Palmyrenian senator determined to resist. He assembled a small force, drawn from the villages of Syria and the neighbouring deserts, and, hovering round the Persian army, continually harassed them, cut off their retreat, and took part of their treasure. Sapor was obliged to retreat across the Euphrates with some haste.

These victories over the Persians were of great importance to the Romans, to whom Sapor was become a powerful enemy.

ZENOBIA, QUEEN OF PALMYRA.

THIS extraordinary woman was the wife of Odenathus, and to her prudent counsel and courage much of his success was to be attributed. She accompanied her husband in his military exploits, was his companion in hunting, and even headed the troops while on their march. The Roman emperor is stated to have allowed Odenathus to be named Augustus by the senate, and gave him the command of the forces in the East. He was treacherously

murdered by a relation, and Zenobia succeeded to his command.

The disturbed state of the empire under Claudius, who was involved in a war with the Goths, left Zenobia at liberty to throw off all subjection to Rome. She resolved to become an independent ruler, and obliged a general who had advanced to attack her, to withdraw into Europe with the loss of his army. Zenobia chose for her minister and adviser the celebrated Longinus, who was also her instructor. She was acquainted with the Latin tongue, was skilled in the Greek, Syriac, and Egyptian languages, and her masculine understanding was elevated by study.

Meanwhile another emperor had succeeded to Claudius, and one not disposed to permit a powerful rival to remain in peaceable possession of a part of the Roman empire.

AURELIAN

(A.D. 270.)

Is best known by his successful struggle with the great and flourishing city of Palmyra, and its yet more celebrated queen, Zenobia. The emperor proceeded to Syria by long and toilsome marches. The two armies met at Emesa,

in Syria, where Aurelian gained a decisive victory. A letter is still extant in which Aurelian complains "that the Romans talk of his waging war with a woman, as if she fought with her own unaided strength;" and adds, "It cannot be told what preparations for war, what store of arrows, spears, and stones is here. No part of the wall but is occupied by two or three warlike engines. She does not fight like a woman, nor like one who fears punishment. But I trust the gods will assist the republic, who have never been wanting to our undertakings." He offered favourable terms to the Palmyrenians if they would capitulate, and an honourable retreat to Zenobia; but a haughty answer was returned by the queen, reminding Aurelian that Cleopatra, from whom she was descended, refused to live but as a queen; and she threatened to attack him with the promised help of the Persians and other neighbouring states. But Zenobia was disappointed in her hopes of assistance; and the Roman army was well supplied with provisions by convoys from all parts of the empire, so that there was no fear of famine, even in the midst of the sandy deserts that surround the oasis of Palmyra.

Zenobia renounced all hopes when Probus, the general who had been sent to reconquer

Egypt, arrived with his forces to assist the emperor. She tried to make her escape, but was taken on the banks of the Euphrates, and brought to the Roman camp. The soldiers clamoured loudly for her death. The courage of Zenobia is said to have deserted her in this extremity; and she is accused of sacrificing her fame and the lives of her friends and councillors, that her own life might be spared. Aurelian condemned those who had directed her councils, and Longinus perished with them.

A ROMAN TRIUMPH.

THE successful termination of Aurelian's warlike enterprises rendered him deserving of *a triumph*,—a public honour that was sometimes decreed to a general on his return to Rome, after having performed many heroic exploits and subdued many hostile tribes. The triumph of Aurelian was celebrated with great magnificence. At the head of the procession were twenty elephants, some tigers, and a large collection of the most curious animals from every climate. Then followed sixteen hundred gladiators. To these succeeded the arms of the conquered nations, the sumptuous plate, and

even the wardrobe of the Queen of Palmyra. The ambassadors of distant Eastern kingdoms attended in their national dresses; and they were followed by the captives taken in the numerous battles of the victorious emperor, each people having an inscription denoting their country. A more striking object then attracted the eyes of the wondering crowds;—Zenobia, once Queen of the East, chained with golden fetters, and covered with jewels, walked before the chariot which she had hoped to occupy herself, while a slave supported the chain that hung from her neck. Aurelian next appeared in the chariot of a Gothic king, drawn by four stags; and the most illustrious of the senate, the people, and the army, closed the procession.

Captive princes, after being exhibited in the triumph of their conqueror, were commonly strangled: but the more merciful Aurelian permitted them to live in quiet enjoyment. Zenobia received the gift of a villa at Tivoli, about twenty miles from Rome, and gradually sank into the character of a Roman matron. Her daughters allied themselves with noble families; and her descendants were not extinct in the fifth century.

WHIMPER.

THE DEATH OF AURELIAN.

THE restless spirit of the Roman legions was too active to allow them a long period of repose from the fatigues of warfare. A few months after his triumph the emperor resolved to lead an army into Persia, whose former monarch, Sapor, had offended the pride of Rome by his humiliating treatment of the unfortunate Valerian. While on the shores of the strait that separates Europe from Asia, he discovered that one of his secretaries had been guilty of extortion, and threatened him. It was well known that Aurelian rarely threatened

without following his threats with punishment. The criminal, counterfeiting his master's hand, showed a long list of names to the chief officers of the army, who were doomed to suffer death. Without pausing to learn the truth of the man's information, they resolved to save their lives by the murder of the emperor. While on a march between Byzantium and Heraclia, Aurelian was attacked by the conspirators, and fell by the hand of an officer whom he had always loved and trusted.

Sepulchral Altar.

TACITUS, PROBUS, CARUS, CARINUS, AND NUMERIAN.

A.D. 275—284.

DURING this short period five emperors held the sovereign power. As an historian of those times has observed,—"The condition of the Roman emperors was so unhappy, that whatever might be their conduct, their fate was commonly the same. A life of pleasure or of virtue, of severity or mildness, of indolence or

glory, alike led to an untimely grave; and almost every reign is closed by the disgusting repetition of treason and murder."

To Aurelian, Tacitus succeeded, after an interval of eight months. He was then far advanced in life, of studious habits, and he accepted the offer very unwillingly. He claimed descent from the historian Tacitus, whose works he ordered to be preserved with the greatest care in the public libraries, and he caused copies of them to be made every year.

Probus was his successor, a brave and manly character, whose warlike measures suppressed all the enemies of the state, and whose mild but steady government preserved the public tranquillity. In this season of peace Probus, who knew the importance of occupying the legions, exercised them in planting the hills of Gaul and Pannonia with vineyards. In his own country, Sirmium, he converted a large unhealthy tract of marshy ground into land fit for tillage. Probus, who held the interests of mankind of greater importance than those of the army, even expressed the hope that by the continuation of peace he should be able to lay aside the necessity for a standing army and mercenary forces. During the labours of the soldiers among the marshes in very hot weather

they became impatient of fatigue, and broke out into a furious mutiny. Probus, aware of his danger, took refuge in a lofty tower. The building was immediately forced, and the emperor fell beneath the swords of his troops.

Carus reigned but a short time. His military exploits were performed in his contests with the Persians. His two sons, Carinus and Numerian, suffered violent deaths, and were followed by the more celebrated Diocletian.

DIOCLETIAN.

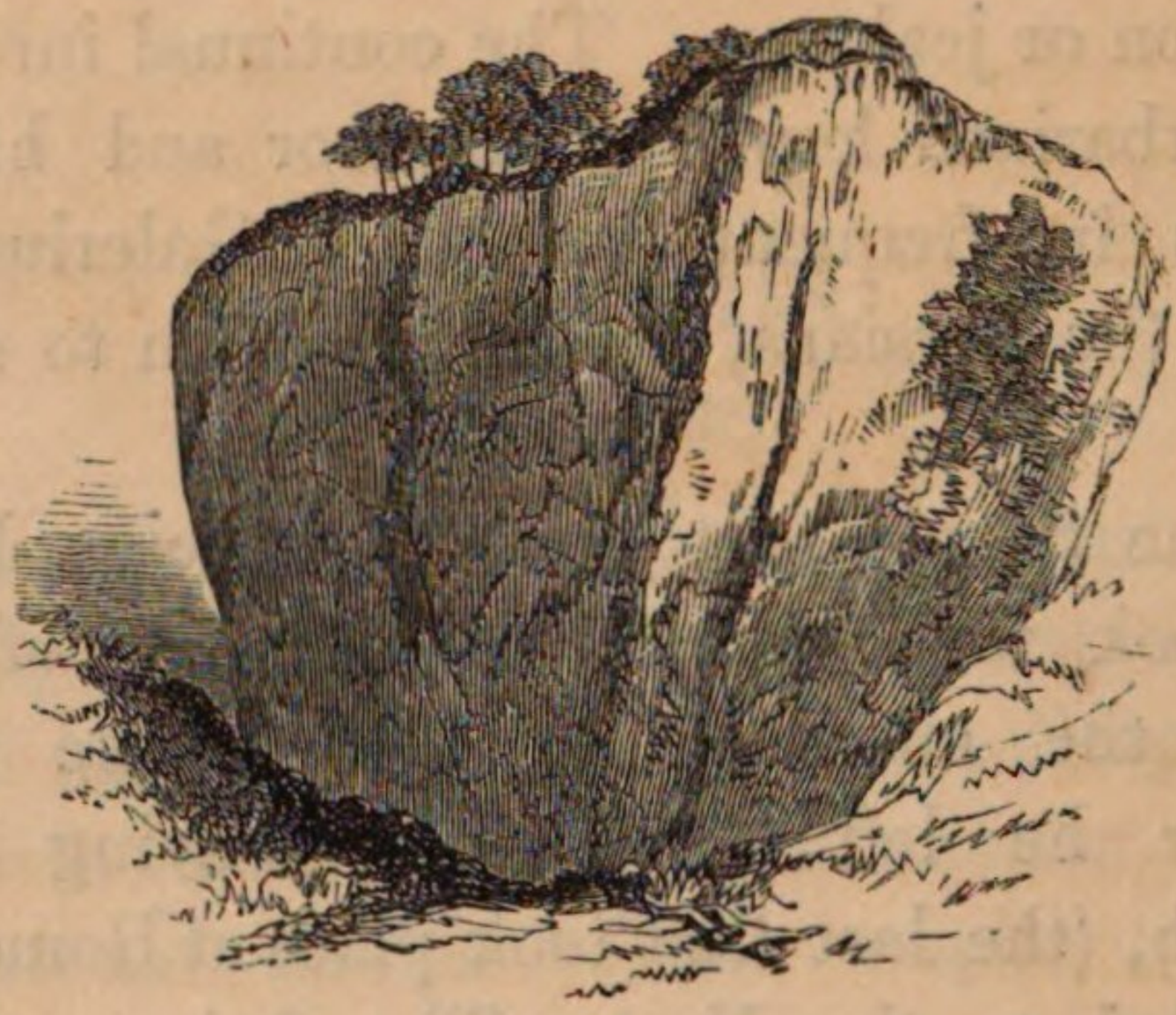
A.D. 284.

DIOCLETIAN ranks among the most distinguished of the Roman emperors. The first important act of his reign was to choose a colleague. He selected his old friend Maximinian, who had fought the battles of the empire on every frontier, and was capable by his valour of performing the most arduous undertakings. The emperor thus provided for the safety both of the East and West, by associating a fellow-soldier in the cares of government. Notwithstanding the difference of character, the two emperors maintained their regard for each other.

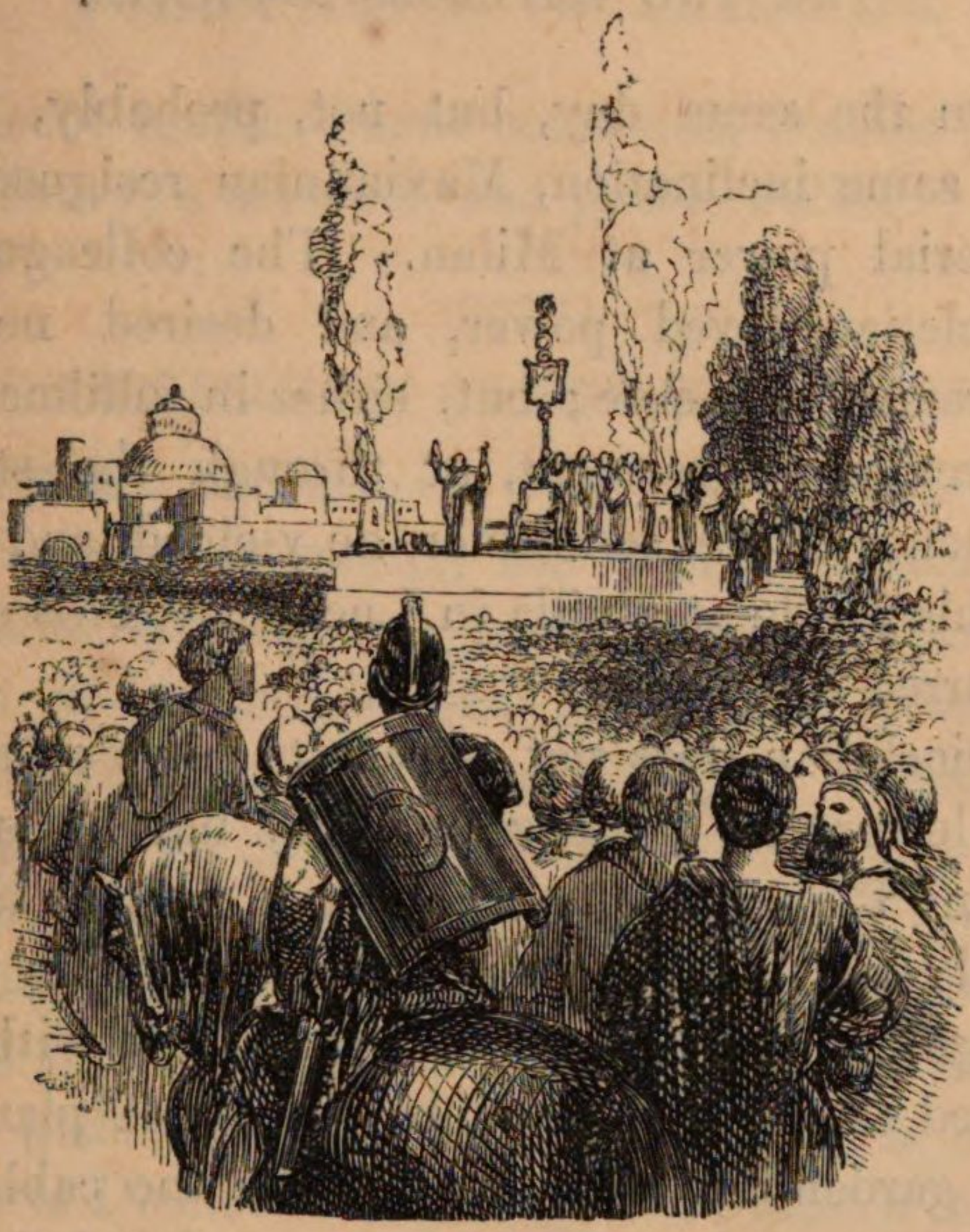
The turbulent spirit of Maximinian respected the firm, self-possessed Diocletian, who, not much to his credit, artfully availed himself of the hard, unpitying disposition of his colleague to carry into effect any measure of political severity or cruelty. Diocletian subsequently chose two other associates in the government, Galerius and Constantius *Chlorus*,—so called from the paleness of his complexion,—who were named Cæsars; and the union of the four princes was remarkable for freedom from suspicion or jealousy. The continual inroads of the barbarians kept the emperor and his colleagues in frequent warfare. Galerius conquered the Persians, and forced them to sue for peace.

In the twenty-first year of his reign Diocletian took the remarkable resolution of abdicating the empire. In very severe winter weather he left Rome, after having had a triumph, (the last that took place at Rome,) and proceeded to the East. The fatigues of the journey caused him to contract a slow disease, and, though he was carried in a litter, he became seriously ill on his arrival at Nicomedia. Here he remained confined through the winter, and he was even reported to be dead. At length, in the month of March, Diocletian once

more appeared in public, but so emaciated, that he could scarcely be recognised. He now found it needful to put an end to the struggle. His health required repose, while the cares of the empire claimed his attention, even on a bed of sickness; and he resolved to end his days in honourable retirement.



The Tarpeian Rock.



THE TWO EMPERORS ABDICATE.

The ceremony ot abdication took place on a wide plain at a little distance from Nicomedia. Diocletian ascended a throne, and, in a dignified address, signified his intention to the soldiers and the people, who were assembled on this unusual occasion. When he had concluded, he withdrew from the gaze of the crowd, and, passing through the city in a covered chariot, proceeded to his favourite retreat at Salona, in Dalmatia, his native country.

On the same day, but not, probably, with the same inclination, Maximinian resigned the imperial power at Milan. The colleague of Diocletian loved power, and desired neither retirement nor ease; but, either in fulfilment of a previous agreement, or through the strong influence of his benefactor, he yielded, and took up his abode at a villa in Lucania. This event occurred A.D. 305.

Diocletian does not appear to have occupied his leisure in literary pursuits, but he is one among the numerous instances of persons living busily and happily in private, who retain their love of natural pleasure, and follow with renewed satisfaction the employments of planting and gardening. "Come and see the cabbages that I have planted with my own hands in my garden at Salona," was the celebrated reply that he returned to Maximinian, when, wearied of his mode of life, he desired that Diocletian would resume the reins of government.

The ruins of a spacious palace built by the emperor near Salona still remain, together with a temple, which is now converted into a church. The modern town Spalatro has been chiefly built within the walls of the palace. Rome still possesses the remains of the *Thermæ*, or baths, erected by the order of Diocletian. This mag-

nificent establishment contained, besides baths, a library, a museum, and public walks.

PERSECUTION OF THE CHRISTIANS.

AMID the revolutions which were continually harassing the empire, the Christians remained in unmolested peace; nor did the final persecution under the Roman power take place till some years after the beginning of Diocletian's reign. The professors of the Christian faith held offices of trust and power even in the palace of the emperor; nor did the abhorrence that they openly expressed for the worship of the gods render them unfit in the eyes of the liberal Diocletian for using their talents for the public good. Churches were numerous, and proselytes were continually added to the congregations.

But the evil effects of prosperity had manifested themselves among the Christians; a worldly spirit and bad passions had crept in among them. Struggles for the chief offices in the churches, and strife concerning modes of faith, disgraced many of those who professed to hold the precepts of their religion in deep veneration.

Although this persecution is attributed to

Diocletian, the chief instigators were Galerius and Maximinian; the former endeavoured to obtain an edict by which every Christian who refused to offer sacrifice should be burned alive. Diocletian so far moderated the fury of Galerius as to avoid shedding blood; but the Christian churches were ordered to be demolished, and the punishment of death was denounced against all persons holding secret assemblies for the purpose of religious worship. The property of the Church was confiscated; and those Christians, who retained their faith, were deprived of all benefit from public justice. In Constantius the Christians of Gaul found a protector, though his subordinate station as Cæsar did not enable him to prevent the destruction of the churches. After his elevation to the highest dignity he established a system of toleration. Under his son Constantine a memorable change took place. By the edict of Milan the emperor assured to every Roman subject the free exercise of his own religion; and when Constantine adopted the new faith, he called together the great Council of Nicæa, where the scriptural doctrines of the Godhead of Christ, defended by Athanasius, were asserted in the Nicene Creed, and the heresy of Arius was condemned.

CONSTANTINE THE GREAT.

A.D. 306.

CONSTANTINE, the son of Constantius Chlorus, was brought up at the court of Diocletian, and entered the army at an early age. The favour of the people and of the army rendered Galerius jealous of his popularity, and it was with difficulty that he escaped into Gaul, and joined his father at the port, now called Boulogne, just as he was embarking to pass over into Britain,

which island formed part of the dominion consigned to Constantius.

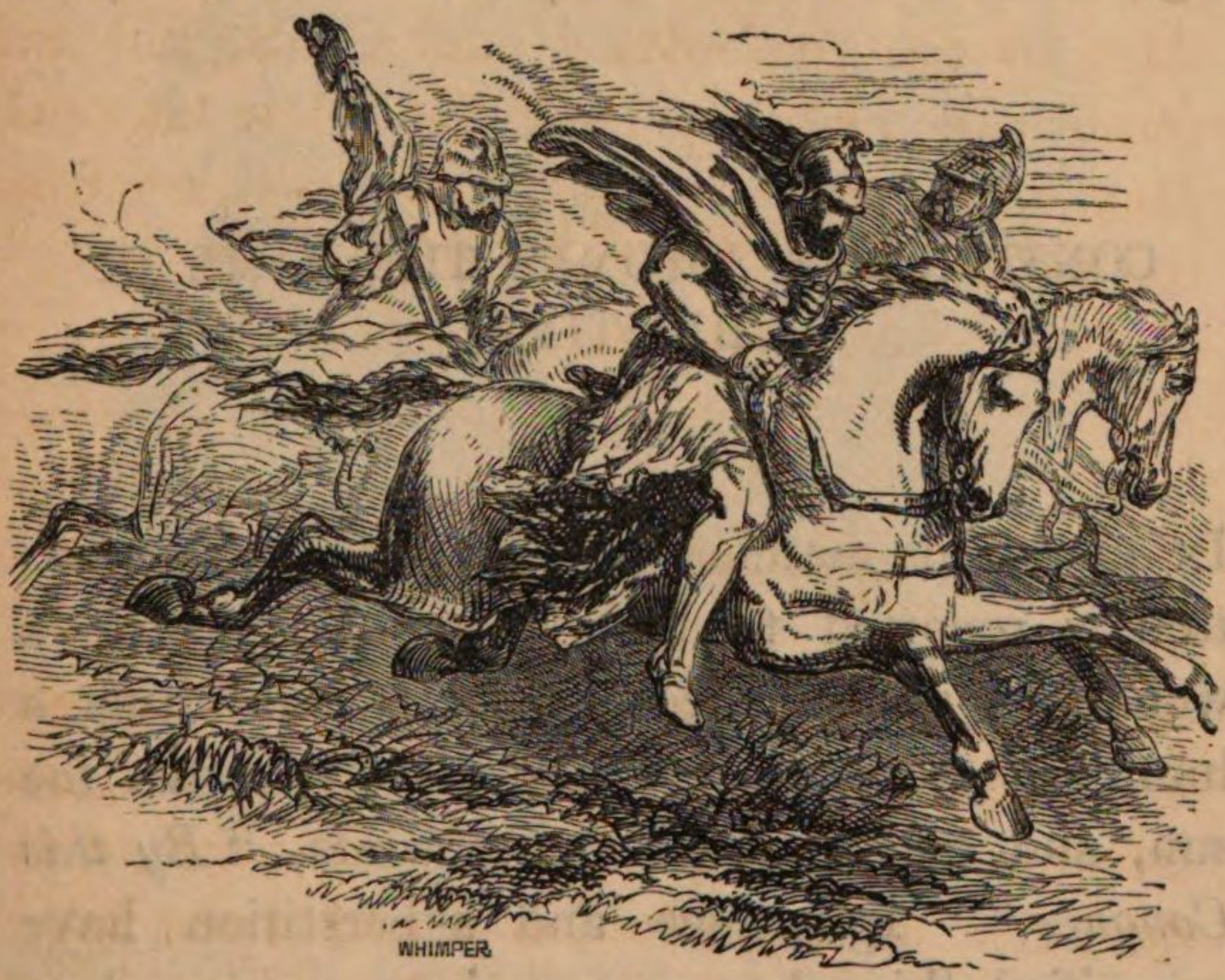
Constantine attended his father in his expedition against the Caledonians, and the easy victory gained by the emperor was his last military undertaking. He died at York, or, as the city was then called, *Eboracum*.

Constantine was immediately named emperor by the troops. He continued to command the countries of the West, and upon the death of Galerius advanced towards Rome, passing the Alps by the road over Mount Cenis, and had reached the plains of Piedmont before his rival, Maxentius, was aware of his departure from the banks of the Rhine.

DEFEAT OF MAXENTIUS.

MAXENTIUS was the son of Maximinian, and had succeeded to his title and portion of the empire. He openly asserted his right to the dominion of the West, and had assembled a large army to attack the Gallic provinces. During his reign of six years he suffered the soldiers to plunder the people, and he entertained the greatest aversion to the senate, while he passed

his time in idleness and vice: he was wont to declare, that he *alone* was emperor, and that the other princes were merely his lieutenants, placed over the provinces to protect the frontiers. In Constantine he provoked a formidable enemy, who, supported by the secret intrigues of the senate and the people, resolved to advance towards Rome. The two armies engaged in a furious battle within a few miles of the city, near the Tiber. Maxentius, together with thousands of



WHIMPER.

his flying troops, perished in the river, attempting to escape, after the complete victory of Constantine.

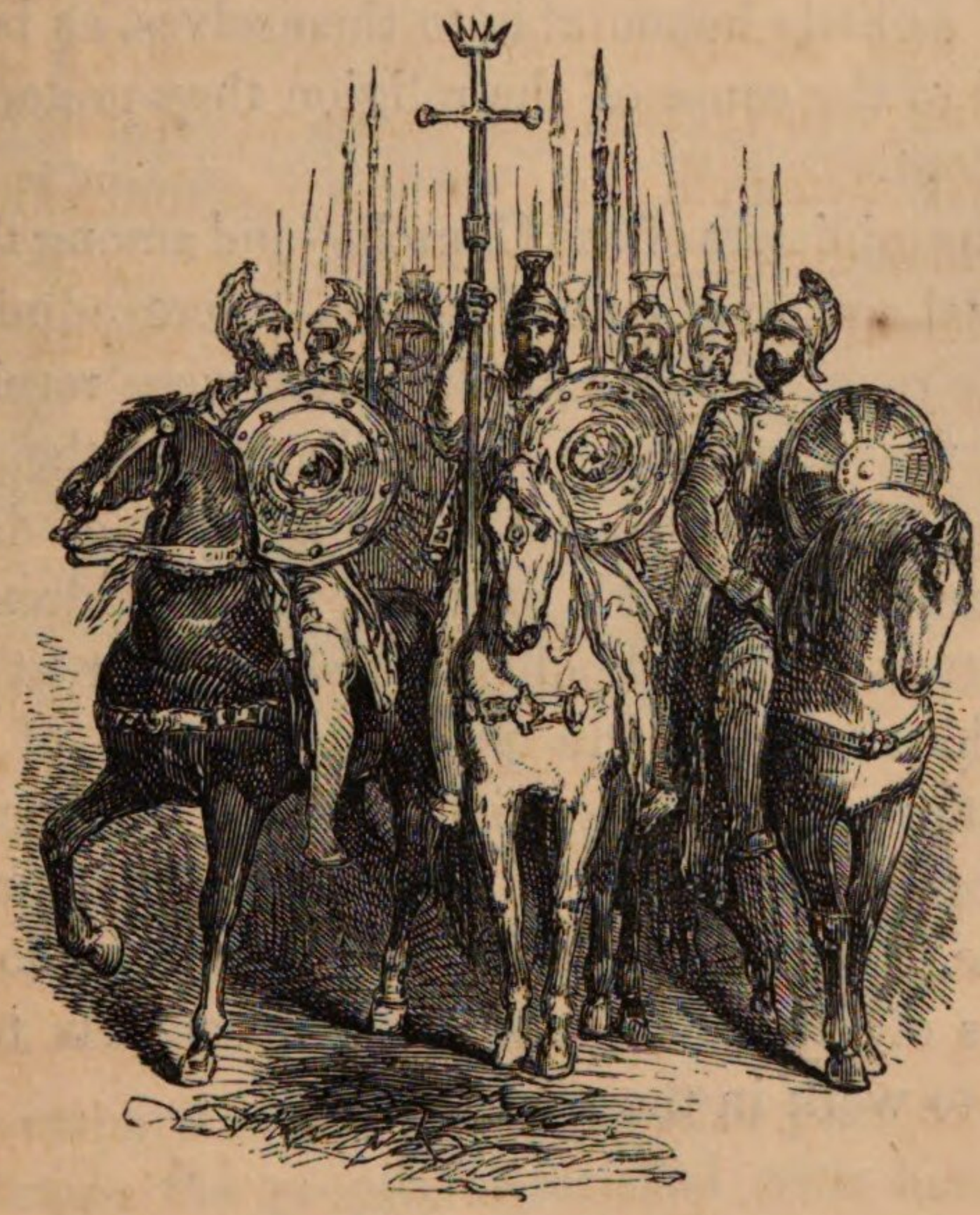
The Prætorian guards, hopeless of favour from the new emperor, fought vainly to obtain success; the greater part of their number were found slain on the spot their ranks had occupied. The final abolition of those imperious and unruly troops was decreed by Constantine; their fortified camp at Rome was entirely demolished; and the few individuals who had escaped in the battle were sent into the distant provinces, and dispersed among the legions.

CONSTANTINE ASSUMES THE NAME OF CHRISTIAN.

A.D. 312.

In one of his marches towards Rome, Constantine is reported to have seen at mid-day a wonderful appearance in the sky, exhibiting a luminous cross, placed immediately above the sun, and encircled with the words, "*By this Conquer*." Ignorance and superstition have magnified this phænomenon into a miraculous interposition, about which much has been written and conjectured. The following night the emperor is said to have had a *vision*, in which

he was directed to frame the cross as a standard. This ensign was called the *Labarum*, and is described as a long pike with a beam across it; a silken veil hung from it, ornamented with the

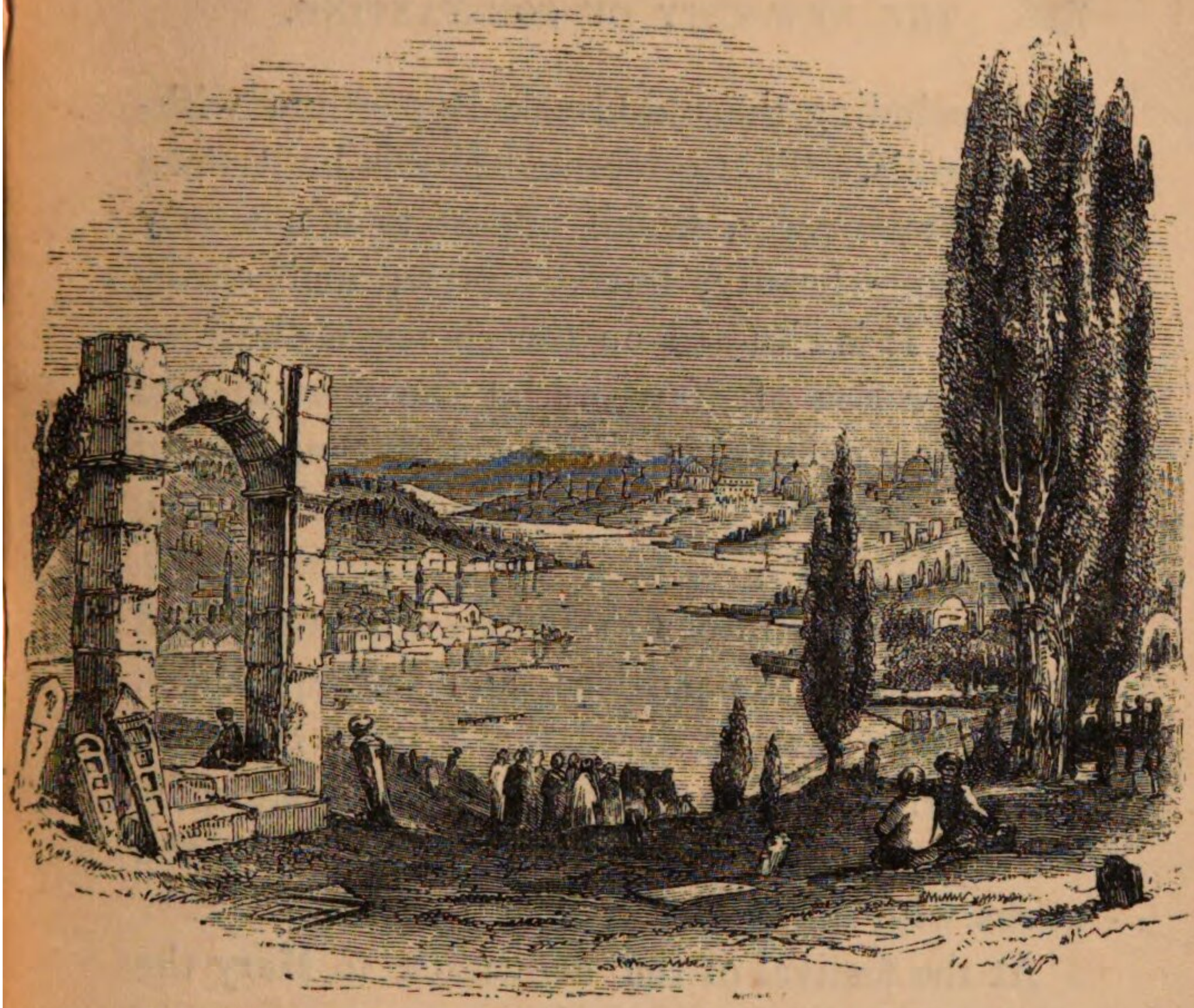


Constantine's Standard.

resemblance of the emperor. On the summit of the pike was a golden crown, which enclosed in it the initial letters of the name of Jesus Christ. Fifty guards had the care of the Standard.

After the open profession of Constantine in belief of the truth of Christianity the fears of Pagan persecution were at an end. His example, and the hope of honours and rewards, brought many new converts, whose motives were as little honourable to themselves, as beneficial to the cause of the religion they pretended to adopt.

The ministers of the Church—and among them were Lactantius and Eusebius—were admitted to the royal table; and the latter were received into the friendship and familiarity of the emperor. He abolished the punishment of death by crucifixion, and ordered that children of destitute parents should be provided for at the public expense. He prohibited some of the worst practices of paganism, but did not attempt to forbid the exercise of the old religion of Rome. By another edict he put an end to the fights of gladiators, and ordered convicts to be sent to work in the mines.



THE NEW CITY OF CONSTANTINE.

A.D. 328.

THE emperor, about the year 326, paid a visit to Rome; the people, dissatisfied with him for leaving the ancient religion, expressed their dislike in very bitter satires. Constantine retired in disgust, never more to return.

After Byzantium had surrendered to Constantine, he was so struck with its fine situation, that he resolved to make it the site of a new

city, including the old Greek Byzantium within its walls. This celebrated city is built upon several eminences, which impart to it not only picturesque beauty, but salubrity, and cleanliness. It is situated on the shores of the Propontis, or Sea of Marmora, at the west end of the narrow channel of the Bosphorus, an arm of which forms the famous harbour called "The Golden Horn."

Above two millions of money were expended on the walls, the porticos, and the aqueducts. The woods that bordered the Euxine Sea, and the quarries of fine marble, afforded materials, while a multitude of labourers hastened on the works with untiring speed.

At the festival of the dedication to Mary the mother of Christ, an edict, engraven on a column of marble, gave the name of *Second* or *New Rome* to the city of Constantine. But the title of Constantinople became general, and still, after the revolution of so many centuries, it retains the name of its founder.

A very dark stain rests upon the memory of Constantine the Great. Crispus (the son of the emperor and of his first wife), a young man who had manifested ability and courage on several occasions, was accused of a grave crime by Fausta, his step-mother, and likewise of

aspiring to the sovereign power; upon these charges he was beheaded by his father's decree, and his sister's son lost his life at the same time. Helena, the mother of the emperor, soon after discovered that Fausta herself was an abandoned woman, and that the young princes were entirely innocent. Upon this Fausta was put to death, with several of her accomplices. Constantine reigned thirty years; a long period for a Roman emperor.

CONSTANTIUS,

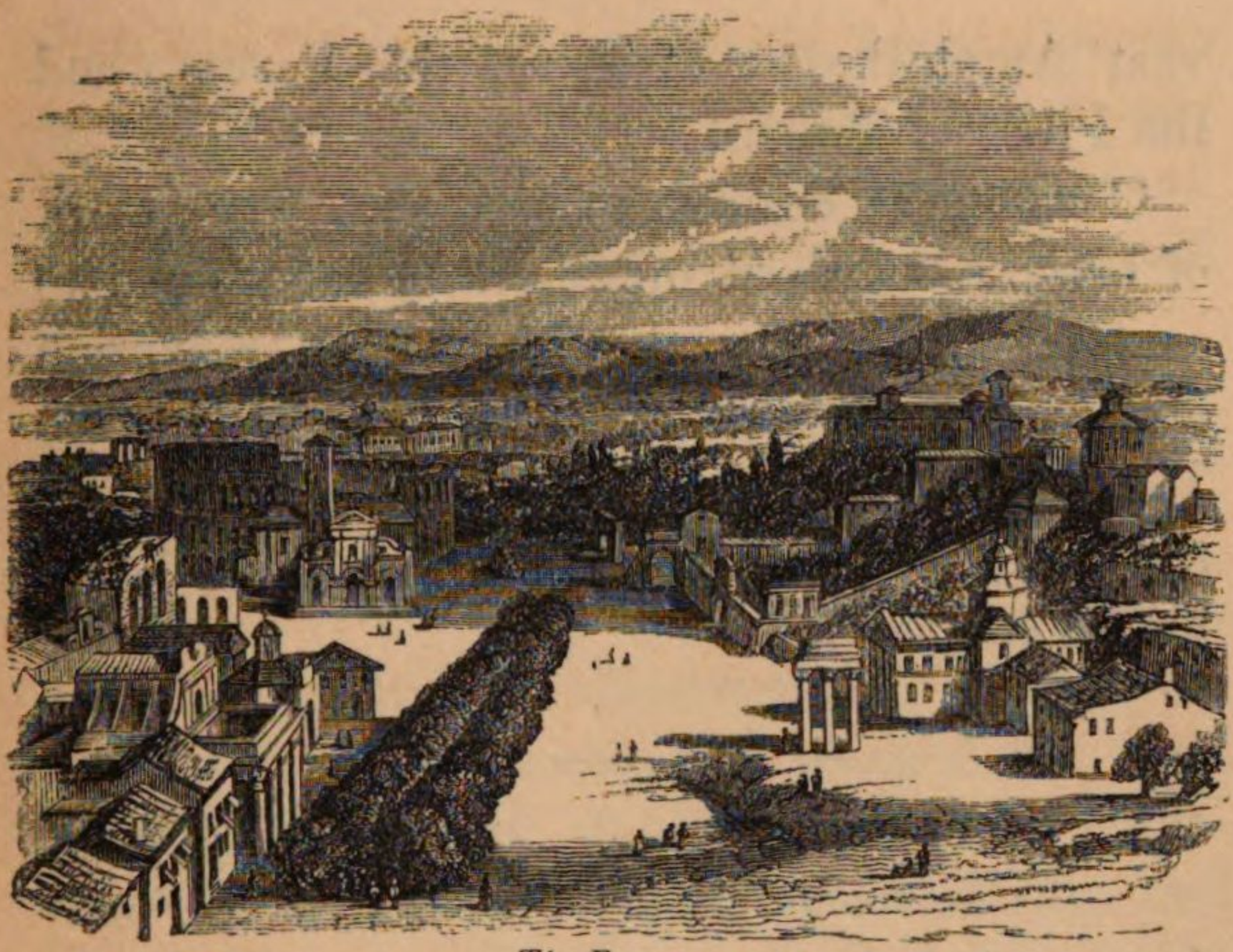
(A.D. 337.)

SON of Constantine the Great, was left by his father's will Emperor of the East.

It was also asserted, that the late emperor had left a document, in which he expressed his suspicions that he had been poisoned by his own brothers. He entreated his sons to punish the guilty, and secure their own safety. The story is not to be credited; but the furious clamours of the soldiers, who declared against the whole family, caused a massacre of the two princes and seven of their innocent children. Two only escaped, who were kept in a strong

castle near Cæsarea, where they pursued their studies, and practised manly exercises under skilful masters. The state of the empire induced Constantius, who now possessed the entire sway, to make the elder, Gallus, Cæsar; and he fixed his abode at Antioch. He was married to the daughter of the emperor, a woman of furious temper; she increased the fierce passions of her husband, who was already morose and cruel. He fell a victim to the suspicion of Constantius, and Julian alone remained.

Sandals.



The Forum.

CONSTANTIUS AT ROME.

THE emperor, in the year 337, paid a visit to the ancient capital, which he entered with the pomp of a victorious prince, and was received by the magistrates and the senate. He was lodged in the ancient palace of Augustus, went to the senate, and spoke from the tribunal, (where Cicero had so frequently pronounced his eloquent orations,) and spent the time of his short visit in admiring the noble and magnificent buildings, which then retained their splendour,—the Capitol, seated on the Tarpeian rock, the famous baths, the Pantheon, the

vast Amphitheatre of Titus, the Forum, and the Pillar of Trajan.

Constantius, desirous of bestowing some mark of his gratitude and munificence, determined to confer on the city the gift of an Egyptian obelisk, which was removed from before the Temple of the Sun at Heliopolis in Egypt by the Emperor Constantine, and sent to Rome by his successor.

JULIAN.

JULIAN, being the last of the family, was at length named Cæsar by Constantius, and was well supported by the influence of the Empress Eusebia, who had always favoured him. Julian was sent into Gaul, which he freed from invaders, and spent his winters at Lutetiæ (Paris), and became much esteemed for his wise and just government. The jealousy of Constantius being roused by the applause bestowed on the young Cæsar, he ordered back his finest legions, to be employed in the Persian war. At the time appointed for their departure, Julian bade them farewell; but an insurrection broke out among the soldiers, who boldly saluted him as Augustus (or chief).

Julian sent off messengers to soothe the wrath that he knew would arise on the occasion; but Constantius expired at this critical moment, and Julian became master of the Eastern and Western empires.

JULIAN, EMPEROR.

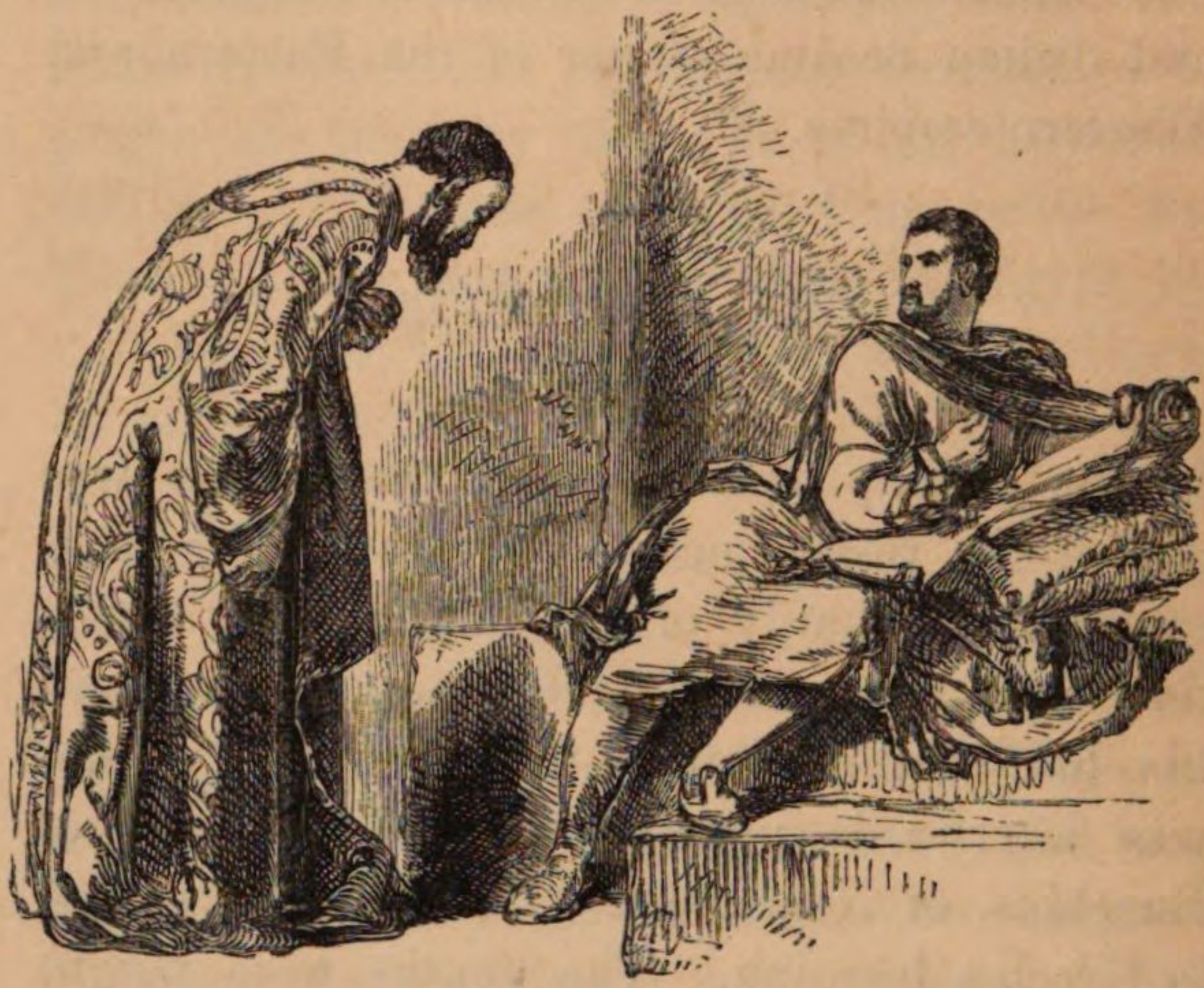
A.D. 361.

It has already been observed, that Julian was one of the two princes who escaped the massacre of the family of Constantine. A Christian bishop is said to have concealed him and his half-brother Gallus in a church. Julian was afterwards placed under the charge of Eusebius, of Nicomedia. He was well versed in Grecian learning. The youths were taught the Scriptures, and publicly read the Bible, as lecturers, in the church. Gallus being named Cæsar by the emperor, Julian was suffered to return to Constantinople to finish his studies.

On his elevation to the supreme power, Julian reformed the luxury and pomp of the court. The following anecdote will give some notion of the prodigality common at that period.

Soon after his arrival at the palace Julian had ordered the attendance of a barber. An

officer in a magnificent dress presented himself. "It's a *barber* I want," exclaimed the emperor



Julian and the Barber.

with an assumed air of surprise, "not a Receiver-General of the Finances." On inquiring the profits of his place, he was told, that besides a large salary, with perquisites, he had an allowance for twenty horses and an equal number of domestics.

The palaces raised by Constantine and his sons were profusely ornamented with gold. The rarest delicacies were provided for the royal table; and the expenses of the household

exceeded those of the Roman legions. Julian's habits were directly opposite to these luxurious modes of life. He usually slept upon the ground, and rather despised than esteemed the parade of royalty. But Julian's vanity found gratification in disregarding the proprieties of dress; forgetful, as his historian has observed, of the maxim of Aristotle, "that true virtue is placed middle point between the opposite vices."

By a single edict the emperor banished the servile household, and the palace was nearly uninhabited, so eager was he to appease the murmurs of the people. But in his haste to diminish the vast expenses of the family of Constantine, he made no provision for the faithful servants who had long attended those princes.

On his elevation to the throne Julian openly professed the old heathenism of Rome, for which he deserted the Christian faith; whence he has been called the *Apostate*.

Julian passed a law enjoining universal toleration; but he soon showed hostility to the Christians. He forbade them to read or teach the works of the ancient classics, observing, that since they rejected the gods, they ought not to be permitted to avail themselves of the learning and genius of those who believed in them.

THE DEATH OF JULIAN.

HAVING resolved on carrying on the war against Persia, Julian went to Antioch. Here his neglect of dress, his uncombed beard, and his philosophical austerity, drew upon him the sarcasms of the corrupt people. Julian revenged himself by writing a satire against them, and imposing a rapacious governor. He left Antioch with a fine army, and crossed the Euphrates, took several towns in Mesopotamia, (*i.e.* the country "between the rivers," Euphrates and Tigris,) passed the Tigris, and became master of Ctesiphon; but his success terminated here. The Roman legions were continually harassed by the light cavalry of the Persians, and reduced to great distress from want of provisions. Sapor, the king, was disposed to terms of peace, when a skirmish between the outposts of the two armies occurred, and Julian, running to head his soldiers, neglected to put on his armour. A shower of javelins and darts was discharged by the flying squadrons, and one of the weapons, grazing the skin of his arm, pierced the emperor's side, and fixed in the liver. Julian attempted to draw out the deadly weapon, but fell senseless from his horse. He spent his last hours in discoursing with the philosophers

who had accompanied him. The efforts he made caused his wound to bleed afresh, and, having called for a draught of cold water, he fell back and expired. His remains were carried to Tarsus in Cilicia.

JOVIAN.

A.D. 363.

A NEW emperor was to be chosen in the midst of the disasters of the Roman army. Sallust, an officer highly esteemed, would have been immediately elected; but with modest and unaffected firmness the venerable prefect declined the honour, aware that his age incapacitated him for so heavy a charge. The officers were surprised at the refusal, when a few voices saluted Jovian, the first of the domestics, as emperor; and his first orders were to hasten the march of the troops from the country of the enemy. After suffering much distress in their passage across the desert, they reached Antioch, having surrendered a considerable extent of country to the Persians, according to the treaty made before the army left the scene of their defeat and loss.

Jovian was a Christian by profession, and his recommendation of concord and charity is

honourable to him. He issued an edict, also, in which he declared that he would punish severely the practice of magic, but permitted to his subjects the safe and free exercise of their ancient worship. On his journey to Constantinople, Jovian paused for a night at a small town. In the morning he was found dead in his bed. By some he was believed to have expired in consequence of too great indulgence in wine, and, perhaps, from eating mushrooms of an unwholesome kind; others supposed that he was suffocated by the vapour of charcoal. He reigned only a few months.

Jovian found dead.

Valentinian.

THE EMPIRE DIVIDED.

VALENTINIAN AND VALENS.

A.D. 364.

To Jovian succeeded a gallant warrior, of strong mind and active bodily powers. The valour of the Romans did not free them from the power of superstitious fears; for the elevation of Valentinian was delayed a day, because it occurred on the intercalary or additional day in leap year. At length the hour was considered auspicious, and Valentinian appeared on a lofty tribunal. He stretched forth his hand to address the assembly, when a clamour arose that he

should name a colleague. The calm intrepid courage of Valentinian soon obtained silence, and his speech deserves notice.

"A few minutes since it was in *your* power, fellow soldiers, to have left me in the obscurity of a private station. Judging from my past life that I deserved to reign, you have placed me on the throne. It is now *my* duty to consult the safety and interest of the republic. I am conscious of the limits of my abilities, and the uncertainty of my life; I am far from declining, I am anxious to solicit the assistance of a worthy colleague. But the choice requires deliberation. That shall be *my* care. Let *your* conduct be dutiful and consistent. Retire to your quarters; refresh your minds and bodies; and expect the usual donation on the accession of a new emperor."

The astonished troops, with mingled pride, terror, and satisfaction, were awed into silent reverence; and Valentinian was conducted to the palace at Nice with warlike pomp. He chose his brother Valens as his colleague, and gave him the Eastern Empire; but Valens was a man very inferior to the emperor, for whom he entertained a devoted and grateful attachment, and acknowledged without envy his superiority.

It is the reproach of Valentinian that he became cruel and insensible to pity or mercy. The punishment of those who practised magical arts was enforced with the utmost severity.

At this period all the nations under the Roman power believed, while they abhorred, the frauds by which a few artful and obscure persons, who possessed some knowledge of nature, deceived and terrified the credulous and ignorant of all ranks. The male and female sorcerers pretended to the power of controlling the motions of the planets; they made use of spells and incantations by potent herbs and fearful ceremonies; they pretended by these to destroy life, and to have influence over the works of creation. Waxen images of particular persons were made with malicious intentions, and suffered to waste gradually away by a gentle flame, thus causing the body of the terrified victim to pine to death,—the creature of superstitious fear and credulity. If potent herbs were unequal to their vile purposes, poison was a ready substitute; and innumerable were the deaths and conspiracies produced by apparent magical influences, which required but the aid of common sense to be detected and despised.

DEATH OF VALENTINIAN.

WHILE the emperor was in Hungary, he resolved to subdue the Quadi, who inhabited that part of Europe; and that nation, having been informed of the intention of Valentinian, sent their ambassadors to soften his displeasure at their recent revolt. They approached the throne with deep humility, not daring to complain of the murder of their king, declaring that the late revolt was caused by some bands of robbers, and not countenanced by the nation. The emperor reviled them in the most intemperate language; his voice and gestures marked the violence of his ungoverned passion, and,

while thus agitated, a large blood-vessel suddenly burst, and Valentinian fell speechless into the arms of his attendants. In a few minutes the haughty emperor expired, making vain attempts to declare his intentions to his generals and ministers. He reigned nearly twelve years.

DEATH OF VALENS.

VALENS survived his brother, but lost his life at the battle of Hadrianople, against the Goths, whose squadrons charged the Roman troops with the utmost fury. In the tumult the

emperor was deserted by his guards, and wounded. He is said to have been carried to a neighbouring cottage, where they endeavoured to dress his wound. But the place of his retreat was quickly surrounded by the enemy; they tried to force the door, and, finally, set fire to a pile of wood, and burned the cottage, with the emperor and all his associates. The battle of Hadrianople is considered to equal in the loss of brave officers that of Cannæ, and the results were far more unfortunate.

GRATIAN

SUCCEEDED, A.D. 375, to his father Valentinian, Emperor of the West, and a few months after the defeat and death of Valens, who had presided over the eastern provinces, Gratian made Theodosius Emperor of the East, and associated his younger brother with himself. Being only a child, his mother was to have the command, while he nominally reigned under the title of Valentinian II.

Victory over the Goths.

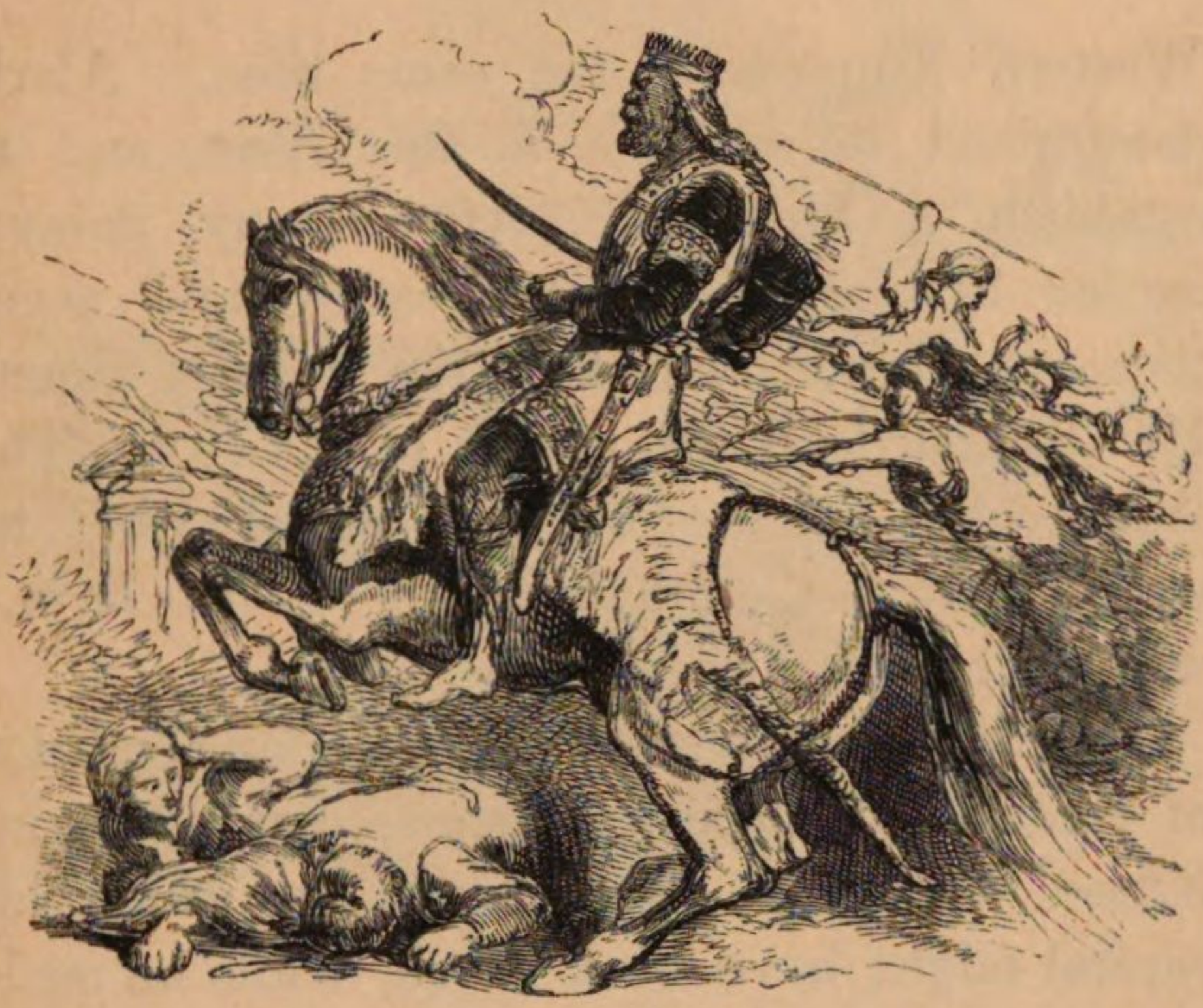
THEODOSIUS THE GREAT.

A.D. 379.

NEITHER Gratian nor his brother long held the empire of the West, and in Theodosius both portions of the Roman dominions were united. History has recorded the virtues of Theodosius *the Great*, the wisdom of his laws, and his success in contests with the barbarian Goths and the German tribes that were pouring down into the frontier provinces of the empire. He respected the virtuous; and every art and every talent useful or innocent was rewarded with

judicious liberality. Towards religious opinions only he was intolerant; and those who held different tenets from his own were even punished as heretics. In temper Theodosius was choleric, which it was his constant effort to correct; but his reign is sullied by an inhuman massacre at Thessalonica. He was indefatigable in executing his purpose, but, having succeeded, he sank into indolent repose.

A few months after a victory over the Germans he fell a victim to disease. With the death of Theodosius the Great the fall of the Roman Empire may be considered as completed. His two sons, Arcadius and Honorius, occupied respectively the thrones of Rome and Constantinople, as Emperors of the West and East, A.D. 395.



Alaric takes Rome.

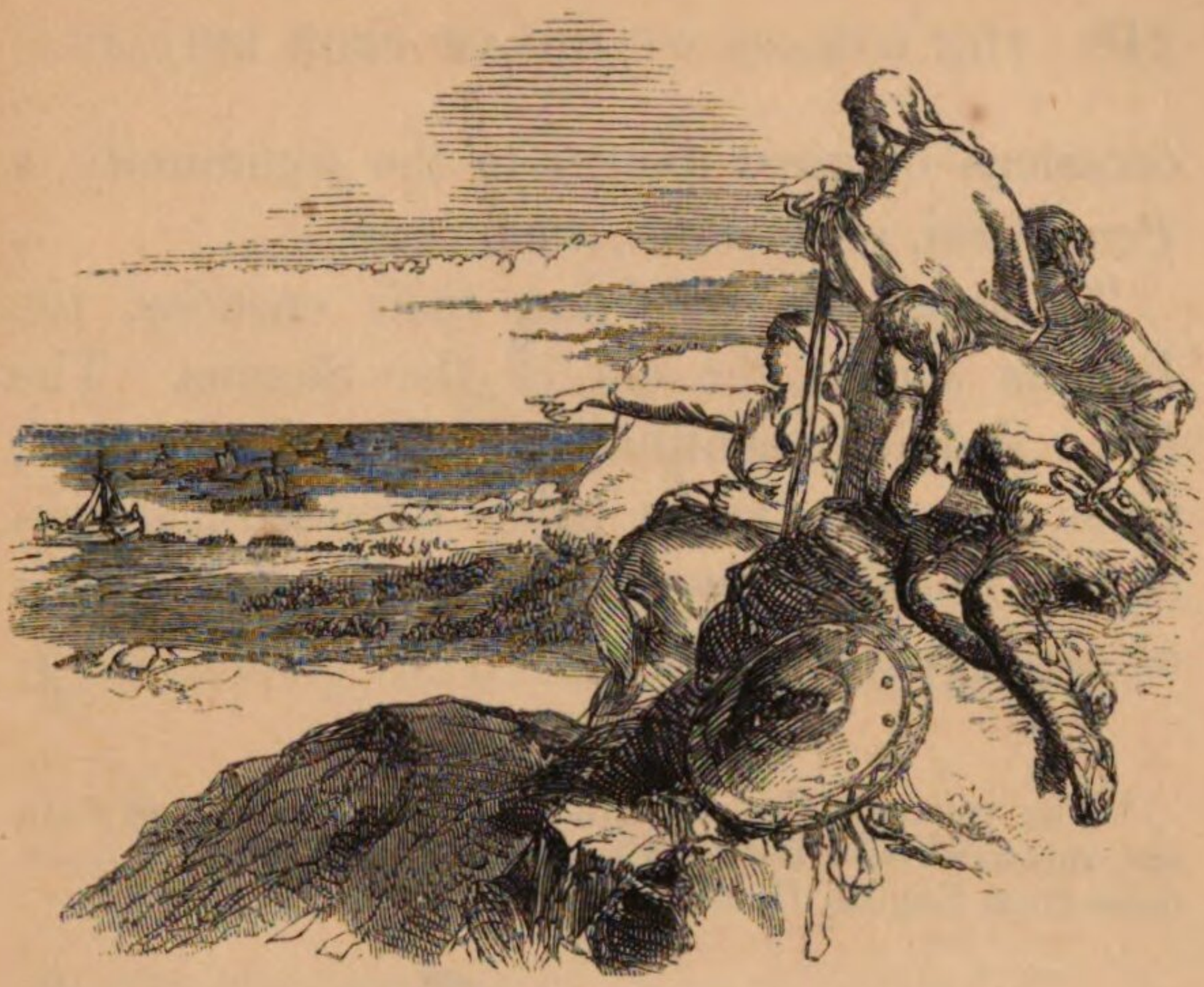
ROME TAKEN BY THE GOTHS.

A.D. 410.

THE emperor Theodosius had allowed the Goths to settle in different parts of the empire, after having conquered them in several battles; but at his death they threw off the yoke, and Alaric was chosen their leader. Under him the division called *Visigoths* issued from Thrace, and overran Greece. Alaric took Athens, but did little injury to the buildings and other works of art. He was proclaimed King of the Visigoths, and threatened both the Eastern and

Western Empires at the same time. Alaric determined to advance to the West, and to establish a kingdom. After many delays, caused by partial defeat, treaties, and negotiations, Alaric advanced to the walls of Rome, He demanded all the wealth of the city. The ambassadors of the besieged asked what he would leave to the inhabitants? "Their lives," was the haughty reply.

He consented at length to retire on condition of receiving a heavy ransom; but Honorius refused to ratify the treaties by which his capital might have been saved, while he made no attempts to defend it. This caused Alaric to appear again before Rome, and he gave up the city to be pillaged for six days, bidding his troops to avoid shedding blood or offering violence, and to spare the buildings dedicated to religion. When the allotted time had expired, he withdrew his forces into the southern provinces of Italy.



THE ROMANS WITHDRAW FROM BRITAIN.

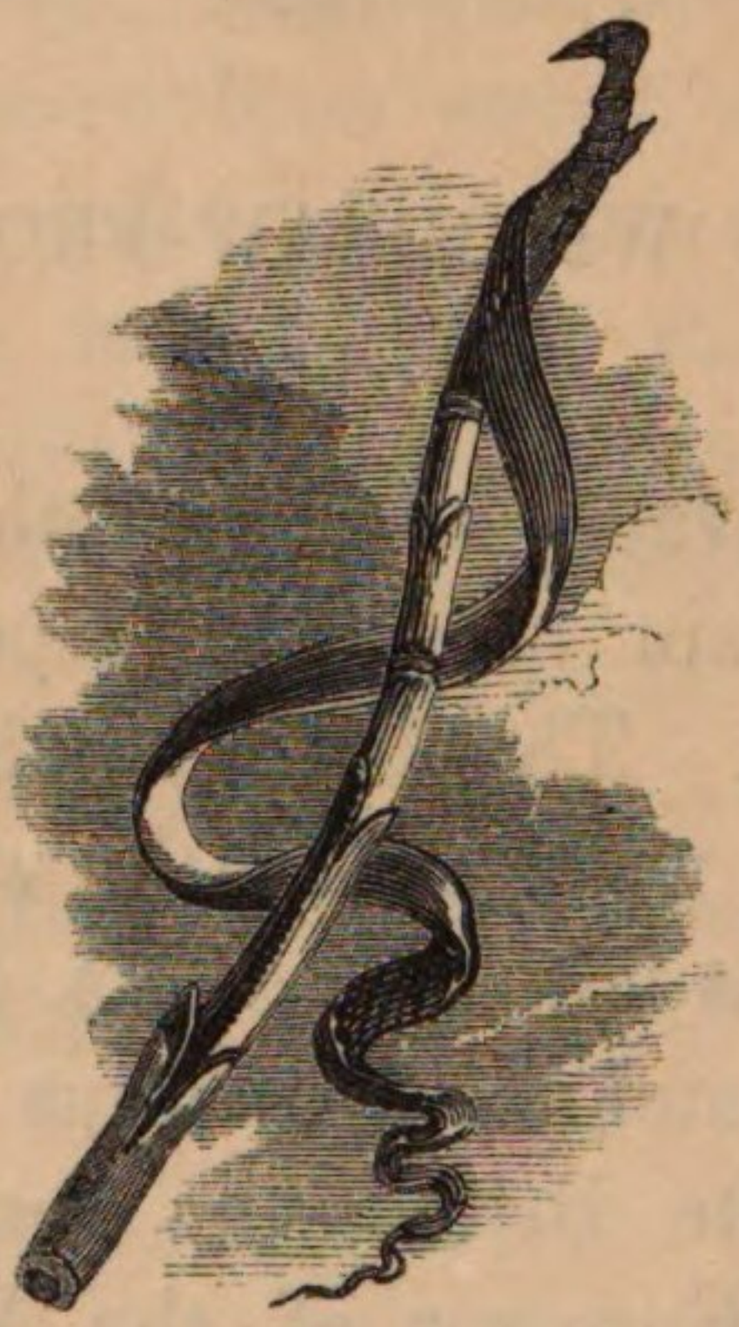
A.D. 406.

DURING the ravages of the Goths in Italy the island of Britain became independent of the Roman power. The legions which had been stationed there were gradually withdrawn, and the country was left defenceless, exposed to the Saxon pirates, and the incursions of the Scotch and Irish. The Britons no longer relied for aid upon the Emperor of the West, who, in fact, acknowledged their independence. For a period of about forty years the island was governed by the authority of the clergy, the nobles, and the most important towns; and on

occasions of great danger to the community, a *Pendragon*, or Dictator, was chosen.

To assist in subduing their enemies, the Britons sought the aid of the Saxons. The fierce and long-continued warfare that ensued, when once the Saxon tribes obtained a station on the island, is more particularly the subject of early English History.*

* The young reader will find much entertainment from the anecdotes and illustrative plates of E. Taylor's "Anecdotes from English History."



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